DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 030 976 EA 002 402

By-Lucio, William H., Ed.
The Supervisor: New Demands, New Dimensions.
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Washington, D.C.
Pub Date 69
Note-115p.; Papers presented at a Conference sponsored by the ASCD Commission on Problems of Supervisors & Curriculum Workers (New Orleans, La., Dec. 1967).
Available from-Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 ($2.50).
EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC Not Available from EDRS.
Descriptors-*Administrative Organization, *Administrator Role, Adult Learning, Change Agents, Collective Negotiation, *Educational Change, Evaluation Criteria, *Leadership Responsibility, Management Development, Professional Recognition, Relevance (Education), *School Supervision, Supervisor Qualifications, Supervisory Training, Teacher Militancy, Teacher Role, Team Teaching

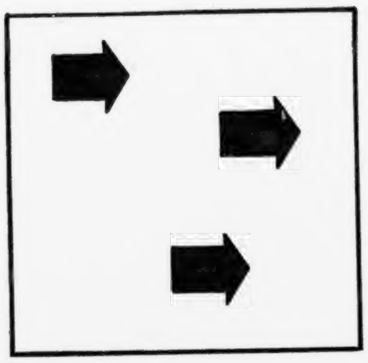
This document contains seven papers which examine the functional and organizational roles of the school supervisor in the context of new social, organizational, and professional demands on the school. The papers were presented at a 3-day symposium which focused on three related themes. The first theme, "The Supervisor: New Demands, New Dimensions," is treated by C. Taylor Whittier in his paper "The Setting and New Challenges." Papers concerned with the second theme, "Coping With Role Realities," are "Helping Adults Change," by Gordon J. Klopf; "Influencing Professional Negotiation," by William F. Young; "Assessment of Learning Outcomes," by J. Thomas Hastings; and "Coordinating the Team," by George W. Denemark. The third theme, "Career Development," provides the subject for "Implications for Career Development," by William H. Lucio, and "The Supervisor and His Professional Identity," by Jack R. Frymier. (JH)

ED030976

PROCESS WITH MICROFICHE AND
PUBLISHER'S PRICES. MICRO-
FICHE REPRODUCTION ONLY.

THE SUPERVISOR:

New Demands
New Dimensions



By the ASCD Commission
on Problems of Supervisors
and Curriculum Workers
HAROLD T. SHAFER, Chairman

Edited by WILLIAM H. LUCIO

EA 002 402

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

Copyright © 1969 by the
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopy, recording, or any information storage and retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publisher.

Price: $2.50

Permission to reproduce this copyrighted work has been granted to the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and to the organization operating under contract with the Office to Education to reproduce documents included in the ERIC system by means of microfiche only, but this right is not conferred to any users of the microfiche received from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. Further reproduction of any part requires permission of the copyright owner.

The materials printed herein are the expressions of the writers. They do not represent endorsement by, nor a statement of policy of, the Association.

Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 77-78387

Contents

Acknowledgments vii
Preface *Muriel Crosby* ix
Foreword *William H. Lucio* xi
Introduction *Harold T. Shafer* xiii

THEME A. THE SUPERVISOR: NEW DEMANDS, NEW DIMENSIONS

The Setting and New Challenges *C. Taylor Whittier* 1

THEME B. COPING WITH ROLE REALITIES

Helping Adults Change *Gordon J. Klopf* 19
Influencing Professional Negotiation *William F. Young* 29
Assessment of Learning Outcomes *J. Thomas Hastings* 47
Coordinating the Team *George W. Denemark* 61

THEME C. CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Implications for Career Development *William H. Lucio* 71
The Supervisor and His Professional Identity *Jack R. Frymier* 83

Contributors 103
Members of the ASCD Commission on Problems of
Supervisors and Curriculum Workers 105
Symposium Leaders 107

Acknowledgments

FINAL editing of the manuscript and production of this booklet were the responsibility of Robert R. Leeper, Associate Secretary and Editor, ASCD Publications. Technical production was handled by Mary Albert O'Neill, Lana G. Pipe[illegible], and Karen T. Brakke.

Preface

THE SUPERVISOR: NEW DEMANDS, NEW DIMENSIONS is an important contribution to the membership of ASCD from its Commission on Problems of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers. The booklet includes the major papers presented during a conference sponsored by the Commission in 1967, ably edited by William H. Lucio.

In the introduction, Harold T. Shafer, chairman of the Commission, reports on the 10 years of work and study by the Commission relating to the general concern of improving the professionalization of supervision and instructional leadership on the part of ASCD. Information regarding proposed studies of guidelines for staffing, continued development of a theory of supervision, collective negotiation for curriculum and supervision, and the formulation of principles and designs for the career development of supervisors will be enthusiastically received by readers of this publication.

The articles describe the forces both within and outside the profession that are shaping education and forcing supervisors and curriculum workers to take a new look at their roles and functions. While the writers deal with their subjects with perception and insight, there is almost total lack of reference to the function of research as a tool for action in getting at the basic ingredients for solving the persistent problems of roles and functions of supervisors and curriculum workers. It is hoped that the Commission, beginning a new decade of work, will take the leadership in establishing the theory and identifying the unique content of supervision upon which changing roles and functions must be built.

March 1969

MURIEL CROSBY, *President 1968-69*
Association for Supervision
and Curriculum Development

Foreword

IN DECEMBER 1967 the ASCD Commission on Problems of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers sponsored a three-day symposium in New Orleans, Louisiana, attended by 270 participants, of whom 232 were supervisors and curriculum directors. The symposium, entitled "The Supervisor: New Demands, New Dimensions," was devoted to the presentation and discussion (by means of participant clinic sessions) of seven papers. These papers examined various facets of the changing dimensions of supervisory roles and of competences needed to fulfill requirements for instructional supervisory behavior in the context of new social, organizational, and professional demands on schools.

Symposium presentations focused on three related themes:

Theme A: "The Supervisor: New Demands, New Dimensions"

Theme B: "Coping with Role Realities"

Theme C: "Career Development."

Themes B and C were an extension of Theme A, which had been selected as the overall theme of the symposium. In this publication, the papers of the invited speakers, prefaced by editorial headnotes, appear in the order of their presentation at the symposium.

Some of the papers presented viewed the problem of applying new knowledge to the practice of supervision in a broad context; others focused more directly on concrete strategies for implementing new research findings. The symposium was designed to consider a common set of problems confronting the profession, and the papers reflected considerable agreement both as to the nature of these problems and as to proposals for accomplishing innovation and change. No attempt has been made to integrate the papers to reflect any particular approach or point of view.

Undergirding the thought which generated the symposium was the belief that: (a) a responsible profession should not allow itself to be shaped solely by external forces, nor abrogate its responsibility to make thoughtful decisions of its own, but rather should take account of social forces and self-knowledge; and (b) a mature profession should recognize an obligation to be responsive to the needs of the social order which houses it, but should seek at the same time to keep such responsiveness under some systematically planned order and control.

In the final reckoning, professional responsibilities for the welfare of children and youth may not be discharged best by rising enthusiastically to every transient challenge; for while such efforts may be well-intentioned, the course of action may be ill-prepared. Confronted with the mass of contemporary and predicted future social developments, perhaps one of the biggest problems lies in picking up the right options. Long-range professional concerns might be better served if we, as a professional association, determine which challenges to accept and prepare ourselves to react responsibly, effectively, and flexibly in meeting educational requirements.

The commission members hope that the authors' call for the creation of new roles, new competences, and new career development programs will provide a perspective to help supervisors and curriculum workers perceive their proper roles in terms of immediate and long-range planning for the profession.

WILLIAM H. LUCIO

Introduction

THIS symposium, "The Supervisor: New Demands, New Dimensions," is the highlight of 10 years of work and study relating to the general concern of improving the professionalization of supervision and instructional leadership on the part of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

The ASCD Commission on Problems of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers has discussed and set up plans to launch the work of four subcommittees and to publish this report. The commission has studied and approved suggested guidelines for standards for preparatory programs for supervisors and curriculum workers, and has discussed the need for a task force to develop a possible revised membership structure for ASCD.

Each of the four subcommittees of the commission plans to study a special area of supervision which we believe to be most timely and in need of careful analysis. The areas to be studied are as follows:

1. Guidelines for staffing
2. The continued development of a theory of supervision
3. The study of collective negotiation for curriculum and supervision
4. The development of principles and designs for the career development of supervisors.

All members of the commission will serve on one of the subcommittees. To enlarge each working group, members-at-large of the ASCD Board of Directors will be invited to help. We are very hopeful that the ultimate completion of the work of the subcommittees will make a contribution to our professional "know-how" and to the *esprit de corps* of all members of ASCD. All the concerns for help to which these projects will address themselves have come from the workers in the field, be it in the school, the school district, or the educational institution.

In discussing the work of the commission, I will condense the past decade of our efforts in general terms and categories. In the beginning much time was given to such questions as: What is supervision? Is there a need for the upgrading of supervisory services? Who performs supervisory services and what is unique about supervisory efforts and services? What is meant by the use of the term "a profession"? Do supervisors and curriculum workers fit this definition?

We gave time to studying other professions. We sought to determine the identifiable characteristics of these professions. And we took time to analyze the medical profession by referring chiefly to the Flexner Report on Medical Training to see what the factors were which ultimately revolutionized medical education, science, and practice. Such studies helped reinforce our own convictions: (a) that we could consider ourselves as professionals; (b) that we could and should improve our concepts and behaviors as professionals; and (c) that the application of our time and talents would be well spent on studying five major ingredients of professionalism. These ingredients are:

1. The study of theory and role definition for supervision
2. The recruitment and selection of supervisory personnel
3. The designing of comprehensive and effective programs of preparation
4. The designing of simple but effective certification standards and procedures
5. The formulation of the concept of continuing professional development.

Underlying all our deliberations have been our efforts to communicate with the members of the profession, and especially of ASCD. The feedback has been helpful and has sustained our labors. Some of the end results have been: (a) the development and publication of a set of principles and recommendations covering the five major areas of professionalization mentioned previously (through the *ASCD News Exchange*, *Educational Leadership*, and the ASCD booklet entitled *Toward Professional Maturity*); (b) planned meetings of various kinds with ASCD members at both state and regional levels; and (c) the preparation of this symposium.

In acknowledgment, I must add that a large number of ASCD members have served on the committee which preceded the present commission. All were hard workers. Some of the ex-members of the commission have helped with the symposium and appear on the symposium program along with the active members listed. My two predecessors as chairman are Gordon Mackenzie and Robert Ogletree.

Over the past several years two trends have seemed to be at work. Supervisors and curriculum workers of this country and their national association have been called to come to the aid of the commission in identifying forces and pressures bearing on their daily work and hence their morale. This trend has risen from another: a rather widespread insecurity and frustration growing out of struggles going on in educational leadership circles. Teachers, administrators, boards of education, and supervisors are vying for an authority position and for rights as the scene becomes fraught with "militancy." A "choosing up of sides" is under way. Curriculum workers and supervisors are to be classified either as "management" or as "labor," and an attitude of the "devil take the hindmost" seems to prevail.

This last statement is guilty of oversimplification. However, there is a basic question of concern to us: "Where is the judgment of the professionals going to find its position?" Supervisors seem to be caught in the middle. The central dilemma plaguing the profession is the "who" (and the implied "when") in the question, "Who will negotiate for and with supervision and curriculum development—or better yet, for learning?"

Increasingly heard today is a second question: "Is there a place for neutrality or impartiality on the part of any segment of educational leadership?" I believe the obvious but complex answer is "No!" Recently I sat with a group of superintendents of neighboring districts, one of whom is deeply involved in what appears to be a statewide "test case" between a board of education and the teachers association. The superintendent involved asked his fellow superintendents, "Do you try, as a superintendent, to be impartial in your local situation?" After a moment of silence, one of the veteran superintendents said, "No! I am partial toward the child—the learner in the classroom."

As another example of the trend of the times, I was told recently that in the largest of our big cities two directors of the Head Start Program were fired because, in the heat of the battle to hold to what they believed to be "good learning," the directors were victimized by a parent group. These parents took their desire that Head Start pupils be given an intensive reading program to higher headquarters and partially won the battle by having the Head Start directors fired. The question may be: Who is going to represent "good learning" in the current struggle for position? Parents? Boards of education? Administrators? Teachers? Supervisors? Or a balance of all?

It is my belief that the present trend in the direction of increased divisiveness within the educational ranks not only will weaken the educational profession as a whole, but will allow external forces to exert undesirable influences upon the learning program.

While preparing an article on the specific concern of the conference, I had occasion to read a publication of the Association for Classroom Teachers, NEA, entitled, *The Classroom Teacher Speaks on His Supportive Staff*. In its booklet, the organization draws this conclusion about the central need for changing education in this country:

> Only when the classroom teacher becomes the nucleus of a group of professionals and paraprofessionals who work with him in educating children, only when he is looked upon as the key professional person in the education of children, utilizing and coordinating the talents and contributions of a supportive staff, will the schools be able to provide all children with the education they must have to be contributing members of society.

As a part of this same point of view, the booklet suggests that what will be necessary in providing for educational change is a new concept of school organization. In anticipating factors which will offer resistance to the organizational change needed, it mentions two "blocks":

> 1. Principals and supervisors have an aversion to becoming a part of a team of which the classroom teacher is the coordinator. They do not see themselves as the supportive staff of the classroom teacher.
>
> 2. The classroom teacher is not prepared to be a team leader and to use a supportive staff.

To bring into focus my concern for the current dilemma, I suggest it will do no good either to be resigned to an undesirable role or to assume an attitude of resistance to change. Administrators at all levels are struggling with new dimensions of their role. Teachers are looking to new role relationships, and supervisors are being described in new terms as "the facilitators." To lead in the identification of a healthier role for the future, we need to work in the context of the family of educational workers at all levels.

December 1967

Harold T. Shafer
Chairman of the Commission

Theme A: The Supervisor: New Demands, New Dimensions

The Setting and New Challenges

C. Taylor Whittier

Treating the overall theme of the symposium, C. Taylor Whittier discusses how the dimensions of the roles and responsibilities of supervisors and curriculum workers must be altered if they are to meet new challenges adequately. Noting that education today is big business, he asks whether educators are ready to work within the framework of the patterns of organizational management which are rapidly being ingrained into the school's work. He predicts that education and technology will be much like love and marriage in the education of tomorrow, "You can't have one without the other."

TODAY free public education, in terms of the number of people who are involved in its activities, has grown to be our biggest business. The United States provides for its citizens more education in greater variety than any other nation in history.

Education Is Big Business

In 1966 there were about 125,000 separate educational institutions, with more than 60 million students and nearly two million teachers, spending approximately $45 billion annually in full-time schools (not counting adult educational classes and extension courses). One out of three persons in the United States (60 million out of 194 million) was engaged directly in the educational system.

Naturally such a large business is costly to operate. Each of us, on the average, is buying—that is, being taxed for—educational services in the amount of $110 (which does not include a multitude of costs borne by individual families).

Out of this massive enterprise will come all (except a small percentage from private institutions) of tomorrow's business managers, all of industry's employees, all government workers, all consumers; in short, the very texture and shape of American life. This has not always been the case; there are 11 million adult Americans alive today who did not finish the eighth grade, and among them 8.3 million who are classified as "functionally illiterate," i.e., who have not completed six years of schooling.

Significantly, however, most of the illiterates are in the older age brackets; less than four percent of the 18-year-old group fall into the illiterate classification.

The ideal of complete mass education did not become a major goal of American life until after 1870. Since then we have made dramatic progress. Only 200 years ago, less than 10 percent of our youngsters attended elementary school; today the figure has surpassed 99 percent. In 1900 about 10 percent of the children in the 14 to 17 age group were in high school; by 1960 nearly 90 percent attended school. In 1910 only five percent of all youths from 18 to 21 were attending college; by 1960 this figure had climbed to nearly 40 percent. In addition, millions of adults now attend classes, so the expression "cradle to the grave" more accurately describes an educational phenomenon than an economic concept.

Changes in our political and social attitudes toward education, as well as the strength of our economy, have paved the way for this educational expansion and improvement. "There is no necessity of anyone knowing anything whatever about education." This sentiment, delivered in 1868 by President Andrew Johnson's Secretary of the Interior, Orville H. Browning, reflected the lack of enthusiasm with which Congress had established the National Department of Education one year before. A nation hard at work expanding, mass producing, being ruggedly individualistic, and struggling with the heavy costs of reconstruction after a devastating war could not muster much interest in such a comparatively pale cause as education. It was more with fatigue than conviction that Congress voted the new department $25,000 for its first year of operation.

The political leadership of today recognizes the vital role of education. In President Lyndon Johnson's words, "If we are learning anything from our experiences, we are learning that it is time for us to go to work, and the first work of these times and the first work of our society is education." So big is the educational enterprise that the 89th Congress voted the U.S. Office of Education $3.4 billion to operate its 100 far-flung educational programs for one fiscal year.

We must be careful, however, to view these figures in their proper perspective. Currently the federal government provides only about eight percent of the total cost of public elementary and secondary education in the United States. Less than one-half of one percent of federal funds is being used in research and development to improve the educational system. Up until the mid-1950's, educators, economists, and businessmen generally believed that the way to increase national income was through reinvestment of capital in material things: factories, machinery, rolling stock, power generators, and the like.

> National income, that most central of all economic statistics, is the sum of the "factor incomes," and by far the most important of factor incomes are wages and salaries. When the work force of a country receives more education, the corresponding rise in their level of wages and salaries is translated directly into increases in the national income.[1]

In recent years there has been interest in another type of question: What share of the nation's annual rate of growth in national income can be attributed to educational investments? Current estimates indicate that between 20 and 40 percent of our growth is a result of expenditures on schooling.

Tomorrow the federal share may be even greater; however, we must not assume that the federal government should be responsible for the major day-in-and-day-out financial support of the schools. In the future, the states may do more for the cities; some state legislatures already have begun to reorganize their tax distribution patterns. Pennsylvania established a new formula after the Pittsburgh and Philadelphia schools mounted a massive campaign to convince the state that the urban schools were facing a critical financial crisis.

Other comparisons of preceding years also suggest the rate at which American education was developing. In 1870, the annual elementary school expenditure per child, according to the U.S. Office of Education, was $15.55; by 1966-67, the U.S. Office of Education estimated that total annual expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance had risen to $684—a figure 45 times as large as 100 years earlier, and double the figure of the preceding decade. In relation to the Gross National Product, educational expenditures today are more than three times as great as they were during the middle 1940's.

---

[1] Charles S. Benson. "The Rationale Behind Investment in Education." *Education Age*, March/April 1967.

One important feature of American life today is the large amount of money individuals have to spend. Technological know-how applied to our production problems has produced a standard of living which is the highest in history. Our Gross National Product in 1965 was more than $3,200 per person, compared with $684 per person in Japan and $1,817 per person in Great Britain. We have only six percent of the earth's population and live on seven percent of the world's land area, yet we produce more than 30 percent of the world's goods and services. Despite this favorable picture we have many individuals who are not prepared to contribute to and who are not adequately benefiting from this economic growth.

This country consumes one-third of the total energy produced in the world and owns one-half of the world's telephones, radios, and television sets. There is one automobile for every three persons in the United States; the Soviet Union has one automobile for every 336 persons. In the United States today, the problem is where to park the third automobile that so many families have; whereas in Ethiopia, the problem is how to feed the third child that has just come into the family; and in Moscow, how to convince the starving family in Red China or elsewhere that food will be abundant for them under the Communist brand of socialism. The standard of living in the United States is about twice that of the advanced countries of Europe, such as France, Germany, and England.

Yet the list is incomplete unless we take note of the expanding system of public education. We have achieved (less our dropouts) universal secondary education; the rest of the world has not. In addition, public junior (community) colleges soon will be so freely available that practically every youth in America with the ability and the desire will be able to attend one within commuting distance of his home.

Even with such progress, the American school system is still trying to bridge the gulf between the intellectual elite and the functional illiterate. The schoolhouses of the nation still range from the most modern complexes to the most dilapidated shacks. Of the 35 million impoverished Americans included in Lyndon Johnson's "one-fifth of the nation" estimate, there are four million adults and children who receive Aid to Families with Dependent Children ("AFDC") relief. Annually the total income of AFDC families including four persons averages $1,680, little more than half of the $3,000 figure used as the poverty demarcation line in President Johnson's estimate. Approximately half of the mothers of families receiving this relief have completed the eighth grade, while in two-fifths of such families the fathers have not finished five grades of school.

Education, which brought us into the atomic age, has yet to rescue some of our citizens from near-medieval helplessness. For too many children, Batman—the pop-art farce of the decade—remains the most accessible cultural experience.

What are our responsibilities in a society which, in less than a lifetime, has witnessed so many revolutionary changes? Solomon, more than 2,200 years ago, said, "For everything there is a season . . . a time to break down, and a time to build up . . . a time to keep silence, and a time to speak . . . a time for war, and a time for peace." If there is a time to speak—a time for everything—then now is the time to keep pace with change. If this is true, what are the problems to which we should be addressing ourselves?

The Changing Role of the Teacher—Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow

Most of the problems that beset the educational system and the opportunities that are open to the schools come to focus within the classroom. A constant recognition of the teacher's strategic role has been basic to the NEA Research Division's continuing studies of school finance, personnel, and salaries. Let us briefly picture the public school teacher of yesterday and today.

Among the teachers of the past appeared Joannes Van Ecklen, who signed a contract in 1682 to "keep school" in the town of Flatbush, Long Island. Five hours a day, six days a week, from September to June, Joannes taught a class of about 16 children (some schoolmasters handled more than 100). He received a tuition plus a salary—with the use of a dwelling, barn, pasture, and meadow thrown in. With no lessons to draw up, few papers to grade, no curriculum materials to select, no conferences to attend, no supervisors to worry about, Joannes would frequently run out of things to do (even after making quills, the most time-consuming adjunct to teaching). So he had a second job—as minister's assistant; if he had lived elsewhere, he might have been juryman, town crier, registrar, probate, or tradesman. As minister's assistant, Joannes was to "keep the church clean . . . serve as messenger for the Consistory . . . give the funeral invitations . . . dig the graves, and toll the bell . . ." He was, of course, paid extra for this moonlighting.

What the aggrieved schoolmaster could not foresee was that dramatic changes would occur in the educational system. By 1862, New Jersey reported: "It is somewhat remarkable that the number of female teachers has been gradually increasing from year to year, until now it exceeds the number of male teachers. . . ."

According to a 1911 study, the average teacher was a 24-year-old female, had entered teaching at 19, and had four years of training beyond the elementary school. Her parents were native born, and her father was most likely a farmer or tradesman.

Who is today's average teacher? The NEA reported that, in 1966, 93 percent of the classroom teachers had at least a bachelor's degree. In Odell's *Educational Survey on Philadelphia Public Schools,* however, it is reported that a large proportion of Philadelphia teachers still do not have bachelor's degrees. The average public school teacher in 1967 was 38 years of age. According to a report from the U.S. Labor Department, the average teacher's pay across the country was $6,862 in 1966, a jump of 17½ percent just in the past five years.

In addition, men have returned to the classroom: about 31 percent of today's teachers are male. In the elementary school, there are about nine women to every man teacher, whereas in the secondary school, the NEA reports that nine percent more men teach than women (54 percent men, 45 percent women). Although these figures are valid for the nation as a whole, Passow reports, for example, that nearly three-fifths of the District of Columbia's high school teachers are still women.[2]

One important fact ought to be mentioned here. The NEA in 1967 reported that slightly more than half the teachers had some income other than the regular teaching salary. The average male teacher (about 57 percent) is moonlighting and is likely to leave the teaching field unless promoted to a higher-paying administrative position. It would seem that teaching, as with Joannes Van Ecklen in 1682, is still only a part-time profession. In addition, approximately 75 percent of the women teachers are members of a four-person family. When do teachers have time to continue their professional growth? Are we being realistic or idealistic in the in-service training goals we have set?

---

[2] A. Harry Passow, Study Director. *Toward Creating A Model Urban School System: A Study of the Washington, D.C. Public Schools.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University. 1967.

It is evident that the classroom teacher has played many roles. The emergence of the teacher in policy-making decisions, however, has not been mentioned. The teacher, says the Educational Policies Commission, should be permitted to speak out on ". . . curriculum, materials, organization of services to teachers, financial support, composition of student body, and the proper extent of teachers' freedom of action and decision." He must contribute his "special knowledge of school needs" because "each teacher lives with the effects of educational policy."[3]

One final point is the teacher's background. The disparity is great between the qualities needed in teachers and what in actuality exists—especially in teachers of the disadvantaged. The main source of this difference is the variation in cultural backgrounds of the teachers, who are primarily middle class, and of the children, who are primarily lower class. Because of this variation ". . . the expectations of the teachers and the curriculum which they have developed and which they teach have a strong cultural bias favorable to the middle class."

Herbert Kohl, Director of the Teachers and Writers Collaborative, New York City, and participant at the Central Atlantic Regional Educational Laboratory's Summer Writing Conference, 1967, stresses that even our so-called best schools are turning out many students who are as inarticulate as the most deprived children of the ghettos, as little able to speak or write simply and directly about things of importance to them, what they know, want, and care about. The training in writing that they get, unless they are lucky, is largely training in "bullslinging and snowjobbery." Kohl contends that a student will be concerned with his own use of language, will care about its effectiveness only when he is talking to an audience which not only allows him to say what he wants, but also takes him and his ideas seriously. A short verse from one of his students, Mark Vecchoise, reads:

THE HEAD MAN?

This guy was born, but he was just a head.
So he went to a witchdoctor, and he said,
"I don't want to be just a head."

---

[3] Educational Policies Commission. *On the Role of the Teacher.* Washington, D.C.: The National Education Association, September 1967.

The witchdoctor put out his hands and went puff and turned
him into a hand.
Then the guy ran around hollering, "I don't want to be a
hand!" [4]

There is a moral to this story: "You should have quit while you were a head!"

Are we flexible enough to encourage children to express themselves even when the content may be outside the teacher's or supervisor's experiences? The range of conflicts between middle class and lower class mores has stood in the way of providing effective education for all. Even though we have made dramatic strides, we still have a long way to travel.

The Changing Role of the Supervisor—Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow

With the combination of the vast development of education and the subsequent conception of education as big business, another area of the school personnel demands our attention—the place of the supervisor. The school supervisor in this age of unrest and revolution has not been left undisturbed. Forces are at work which are reshaping supervisory positions and placing new demands on all instructional leaders. Before detailing the changed pressures and demands caused by the rush of new educational developments, one key word must be defined.

"Supervisor" will be used to include all persons whose unique or primary concern is instructional leadership. Various aspects of the supervisory function may be performed by those called helping teachers, curriculum consultants, curriculum directors, assistant superintendents, principals, or assistant principals. Muriel Crosby, Superintendent of Schools, Wilmington, Delaware, has asserted that "the chief function of supervision is to make it possible to help teachers to help themselves become more skilled in the processes of fostering children's learning."

While there are clear differences among the holders of various instructional leadership positions in respect to what they do, their professional activities are certainly interrelated. It is my belief that all such persons are being profoundly influenced by several recent developments.

---

[4] From: *Fables*. Published by Teachers and Writers Collaborative Newsletter. Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1968.

The influences operating to shape the supervisor's place may be clarified, in part, by a quick glance backward at the roles of the supervisor during the past 50 years. Historically the supervisory role has encompassed two functions: (a) providing leadership for developing, improving, and maintaining effective learning opportunities for children and youth—which means giving attention to content selection, teaching methods, materials, and evaluation, both inside and outside the classroom; and (b) providing leadership in designing effective ways of working with teachers and other members of the school staff to achieve the first function.

During the first two decades of this century, the supervisor was primarily concerned with quality control in the teaching process. Supervisors were responsible for visiting classes, observing instruction, and conferring with teachers. Demonstration lessons and institutes on the content and method of various subject fields reflected the level of preparation of teachers as well as the introduction of new areas to the curriculum. In many instances an individual supervisor had limited assignments such as handwriting, music, art, or reading.

Concern was developing by the 1920's for the impact of the total educational program, and much attention was focused on overall objectives such as the Cardinal Principles of Education. Supervisors often became course-of-study writers, and at this time the general supervisor was becoming increasingly more common.

The 'thirties and 'forties saw the inadequacy of course-of-study revision alone. Various new approaches were invented. By force of circumstances the supervisor became a specialist in group dynamics. American business and industry, with help from the social psychologists, had done the pioneering. The changes toward increased preparation of teachers as well as longer periods of professional service went almost unnoticed. "Curriculum change as social change" or "curriculum change as change in people" became the slogans. The hectic pressures and deep fears of the depression 'thirties were largely forgotten as professional educators turned inward upon themselves in their preoccupation with "groupness," "consensus," "belonging," and "morale." Educators were seeking to understand themselves and the social system within which they operated; and significant progress was made.

The Second World War and its corresponding developments had consequences for all of us which were not fully evident until we were well into the 'fifties. The rise of automation, of electronics, and of nuclear power during the war years, along with the injection of large amounts of funds from private foundations into the educational stream, hastened new developments.

The importance of education, as well as the difficulties in providing it for ever larger segments of our population, became abundantly clear. The popular demand for more and better education rose to new heights. Yet the supervisory staff members in school systems often were not even consulted as changes of various kinds were introduced by boards of education. In some instances, supervisors were regarded as reactionaries who were blocking "progress."

The politics of curriculum changes which has emerged since the Second World War makes new demands on the supervisor. When we speak of organizing a complete supervisory program today, what are we telling ourselves? Where are we heading? Have we backed up our points of view with any substantial research findings? Have we asked whether schools would be as effective without formal supervision? In what ways in our changing age does supervision contribute to the total educational structure? What are the most effective procedures in supervision? What is the role of today's supervisor who must cope with the increased input of business and the growth and changes in the enrollment?

I have found that these questions (and many others) are unanswered, at least in terms of research findings today. Where is substantial research to support our assumed knowledge of the supervisory process?

The ASCD 1965 Yearbook, *Role of Supervisor and Curriculum Director in a Climate of Change,* had, for example, little mention of research studies or research efforts in this area. This indicates dramatically the essential folklore, personal experience, philosophical and/or psychological derivation of supervisory practices. A few years ago the Wisconsin ASCD Research Committee considered developing a study on supervision in the state. The committee hoped to examine the effects of supervision with groups of teachers versus supervision on an individual instruction basis for beginning teachers. The study never was begun, primarily because of the inability to get subjects (supervisors). As one supervisor put it, "We already know that individual classroom visitation is far superior." . . . The evidence? "Anyone who has supervised for a long time knows that." What is clearly needed is a thorough analysis of the direction in which we should proceed. What we can do at this moment—before the conducting of substantial research—is to speculate where we believe the areas of need to be.

Today supervisors are challenged as never before to continue their study on the job. They need broader and continuing planned training. Understanding of the whole enterprise is necessary. The many demands for rapid changes in the instructional program have brought about this challenge.

New insights as to how learning occurs, new discoveries in the content fields, developments in research methodology, and numerous proposals for curriculum change make such adjustments mandatory. Fresh kinds of thinking as well as unfamiliar skills are required. Board of education and school system policies not previously thought of are needed for dealing with the influences operating on the curriculum today. Skills are needed for dealing with the rising power sources as well as for coping with the current in-service education demands. Several kinds of specialization within the supervisory group are required.

Recommendations for Action

Action in several specific areas seems to be demanded at the present time. My recommendations are the following:

1. Recognition of the importance of supervisory education is now an accepted doctrine in the administration of industry and government. Why not more so in education? Major corporations have invested heavily in the education of their supervisory forces. A number of the departments and agencies of the federal government have been leaders in the field of supervisory improvement: for example, the Air Force, the Department of the Army, the Department of the Navy, the Tennessee Valley Authority, and the Department of Agriculture. Supervisors must have an opportunity to increase their understandings and improve their skills in providing leadership toward a more effective instructional program. The writer has participated in developing internship programs for leadership positions in Florida, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. He believes that such programs should be a part of the total preparation for supervisory work.

2. As teacher-administrator-school board negotiations come and go, the supervisor and other administrative staff members are not being adequately heard. Nor are they taking a positive position

of leadership. Too often members of the administration lack an effective voice in the policy-making role of the educational system. The result is that negotiators are left to set school policies and conditions which are not necessarily realistic or apropos to a learning environment. The administration must be more than a spokesman; it must assert its influence.

As knowledge continues to be generated at an increasing rate, as technology revolutionizes our lives, and as cybernetics drops hints for the future, there is a question that is becoming more critical than ever: "What kind of education is best for children today *and* tomorrow?" The supervisor will have to have his say to help answer this question. This new situation, it seems to me, also places the supervisor clearly in the position of having to be a member of the management team, for the superintendent must hold him responsible for getting results in the day-to-day operation of the school system.

The supervisor's best support will be familiarity with research. He must also be a person with broad training and competence who is not afraid to be criticized. Thus, the supervisor must understand the goals of management and work to achieve them. Communication with the superintendent must be improved in both quality and quantity. Francis Keppel states:

> The first revolution in American education was a revolution in *quantity*. Everyone was to be provided the chance for an education of some sort. That revolution is almost won in the schools and is on its way in higher education. The second revolution is *equality* of opportunity. That revolution is under way. The next turn of the wheel must be a revolution in *quality*.[5]

The values held by the members of the management team must be consistent with each other and consistent with the goals of the school system if the system is to achieve a forward thrust and be responsive to changes. The salary incentive plan should promote the attainment of the values of the system and not be left to chance or unrelated planning. All too often today, no special effort is made to develop a coordinated plan based on the values held by the individuals for school system staffing, with the rewards and promotion plans related to the achievement of the goals established for the system. The day-to-day contact with teachers and fellow members of the management team must be handled in concert with the provisions of the contract negotiated with the teacher organization. This means that contract administration is vital to the success of the educational system and is, therefore, a responsibility of the supervisory staff. Many of our current practices need to be carefully evaluated, and discarded when no longer useful.

---

[5] Francis Keppel. *The Necessary Revolution in American Education.* New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1966. p. 1.

3. A business organizational pattern is rapidly being ingrained into our schools' network. Education, as we noted earlier, is big business. But as educators are we ready to work within this framework? I recommend that our administrative and supervisory staffs be trained to cope with such new management and labor problems; that techniques be devised so supervisors can be held accountable for their effort; and that those who do not produce be relieved of this role. The supervisor must understand the labor contract and the power of business in education. This direct influence of business on school administrators and, through them, on schools, sprang from twin factors that were like the two sides of a coin: the vulnerability of the schools and schoolmen, and the great strength of the business community and business philosophy in what Raymond Callahan calls "an age of efficiency." Systems analysis and program budgeting have become tools which are part of the kit of technology used by supervisors.

4. The specific functions, activities, and areas of required competence of those whose unique task is that of serving other staff members on instructional matters require continued clarification. This task is not simple in view of the rapidly changing climate within which schools are operating and the shifting requirements of specific assignments of those holding such widely varying positions as helping teacher, consultant, curriculum worker, and assistant superintendent in charge of instruction.

A continuing effort must be made to define and redefine what the supervisor does and who the supervisor is. Supervisor-preparing institutions as well as school systems must be alerted constantly to the expectations held for those who serve in supervisory and curriculum improvement positions. Burton Tiffany has said that "Probably the number one barrier to more effective supervisory services is the lack of a clear-cut definition of the role of the supervisor." With pressures today to decentralize our large school systems, a natural question is, "Where does the supervisor fit? At the district level or at the individual school level? Or are there to be some supervisors at each level?" In the development of new subdistricts or, in some cities, in the development of the Model Cities Program, new staffing patterns must be considered. It behooves the supervisor to look carefully at his unique role and the appropriate relationships among the supervisor, the school principal, and the superintendent.

Many more attempts are needed to visualize varieties of supervisory patterns and the necessary trial and error and systematic evaluation of these patterns in operation. Further, although most educational functions such as supervision are "long" on goals and "short" on evidence, it would facilitate matters a great deal if the values applied to the supervisory process were clearly identified and related to some kinds of operational criteria that could be evaluated. Perhaps these goals could be expressed in behavioral terms.

If supervisors are to function effectively, then we must clearly specify the changes in teacher behavior and/or teaching conditions that are possible and desirable. If supervisors perform an essentially political function of communication and/or facilitation of school ideology and goals, then these functions ought to be objectified for evaluation purposes. Or, if supervision is essentially a humanistic function providing help and support for humanizing the bureaucratic aspects of schooling, then this should be clearly specified. The lack of clear definition leaves the supervisor in a very uncomfortable position.

Education Tomorrow

What forces will shape the American school and college in the decades to come, and how will the institutions of tomorrow differ from those of today?

We are told that in less than 20 years there will be 71 million more Americans than there are today. That is a number equal to the current total population of all states west of the Mississippi. America's quantitative problems in education are likely to get worse rather than better, as new waves of students inundate the system. Based upon population projections by the Bureau of the Census, elementary and secondary school enrollment is expected to climb to 54.9 million by 1974 and to 66 million by 1984—an increase of 36 percent over the 1946 enrollment and 20 percent over the 1974 figure. Nearly one million students a year will be added to the enrollment of the nation's schools. The U.S. Office of Education predicts that the college population is expected to increase four times as fast as the national population during the next decade. Educational expenditures are projected to rise from $45.1 billion for 1966 to $60.9 billion (in 1963-64 dollars) by 1975.

Americans, too, are becoming an urban people. Havighurst reports that 61 percent of the population lived in metropolitan areas in 1960, and it is estimated that by 1980, 70 to 75 percent of the total population will be living in cities of 50,000 or more, or in the areas which feed into these cities.

The next 30 years are also likely to be marked by a resurgence of the states' role in the management of education and by closer cooperation between the state legislatures and departments of education, strengthened by such people as the supervisor, whom we will presume by this time to be geared into the affairs of management and administration.

The increasing use of technology in the schools will call upon educators to answer many questions at present left unanswered or inadequately explored. What is the nature of the learning process? How, precisely, does one human teach another? What functions can a machine perform better than a human? How do we organize schools and classrooms to make it possible for every student to learn at his own pace? It appears probable that computer-assisted instruction, teaching machines of various sorts, increasingly sophisticated communications, and other forms of technology will alter the school *more* in the next century than in the past 2,000 years.

Rather than putting teachers and educational institutions on the sidelines to watch, the computer offers a challenge for new approaches to teaching that can be met only through the most far-sighted and creative relationship between man and machine.

In this era of radical change, educational technology, man, and machine are locked together in man's life struggle to survive.

> Perhaps the most important single advantage of adding a computer to the arsenal of educational technology is the responsiveness the system offers to the student. We have never really known enough anyway about individual achievement or ability to justify our customary "single track" approach.[6]

The potential of computers in education lies somewhere between this rather magical talent and the ability to correct a student who thinks "1 + 1=3." A voice from Johnny's speaker in a learning console might congratulate him on getting the right answer, then urge, "Now try this one," as the screen projects a new problem. If he gets three wrong in a row, a soft tone will ring, and the concenter monitor will come in and individually help him.

---

[6] Don D. Bushnell. "For Each Student a Teacher." *Saturday Review* 49 (30): 31; July 23, 1966. Copyright 1966, Saturday Review, Inc.

At the most fundamental level the computer, like the glass slides and the static-ridden phonograph record of 50 years ago, is no more than a classroom tool to be used as teachers, schools, and school systems may desire. It is easy to forget this, and so we can already hear sporadic cries of protest from teachers and supervisors who feel that they may soon be outmoded.

Both the aim and the scope of American education have changed radically over its 350-year history. Throughout the changes in American education, however, certain constants have remained and only quite recently have begun to change. At least four such age-old methods of operation come to mind.

First, one anachronism that haunts today's educational process relates to our agrarian past. The typical school day may run from 8:30 to 3:30. This schedule allowed Johnny to do the morning chores before leaving for school and to get back home in the afternoon in time to bring in the firewood, round up the cows, and bring in water for the early evening supper (since there were no electric lights) before dark. Johnny these days performs none of these chores in the typical urban home; but he does have a long time to "kill" between school and dinnertime.

Second, students typically begin their school year in September and conclude it in June, with a three-month hiatus, originally designed so that Johnny could help on the farm during the important part of the growing season. This consideration has little relevance to the urban child, who finds, instead, three months with not much to do.

Third, formal education in this country typically begins at the age of five or six. This develops not from the learning capacity of children, but from the days when schools were few and far apart, transportation was inadequate, and the child was kept home until he was big enough to walk to the schoolhouse. Gesell investigators have found that, rather than continue this traditional practice, children should start school on the basis of the maturity of their behavior. Furthermore, there are adequate demonstration and research projects that suggest starting with the child of two or three who is quite ready for instruction.

It has been shown that even two- and three-year-olds of average intelligence can learn to read, write, and type. Public schools have been wasting valuable years by postponing the teaching of many important subjects on the grounds that they are too difficult. Normal children can make up the first six or seven years with a few months of good teaching. The tragedy of the late start is that by the time the student enters school, he has used up nearly all of his first seven years, during which time a high percentage of growth has taken place.

Finally, another such age-old practice is sometimes referred to as the "egg carton" architecture of our schools. Classrooms in little boxes are still being constructed. This helps to keep one field of instruction isolated from another and to reinforce fragmentation of the student's time. This compartmentalization of knowledge implemented by an anachronistic school architecture too often gives off as its end product fragmented specialists. Educators and educational organizations, already overburdened in the application of established methods, must concentrate on the initiation and quality control of new educational procedures. Those in leadership roles must be alert enough to evaluate proposed change while seeking new solutions, and strong enough to discard established ways which may be more comfortable.

In conclusion, we may see a significant merger between industry and education. Within this framework we must be willing to work for something we may dislike, to accept things we cannot understand, and to start a process the conclusion of which is uncertain and probably undesirable to many of us. The challenge lies before us. What will be our response?

Theme B: Coping with Role Realities

Helping Adults Change

Gordon J. Klopf

Theme B of the symposium was concerned with the functional and organizational roles of supervisors. The first of four papers devoted to this theme is that of Gordon J. Klopf. Dr. Klopf discusses the responsibility of the supervisor to bring about changes in adults. The nature of the skills required to be such a change agent and the performance and intellectual achievement as persons grow older have implications for those designing and carrying out training programs involving adults. Reflecting recent findings in adult learning, he proposes a set of four components for a staff development program to foster competence and desirable behavior.

FREDERICK NIETZSCHE once said, "The world seems logical to us because we have made it logical." If we take this remark and apply it to our role in schools, we might say that our past ways of working in supervisory roles with teachers and other school personnel appear to us to be right, because we have evolved them.

The real questions to ask ourselves should be: "Are these ways of working effective? Are they assisting the teacher in helping the child to learn?"

The objective of this discussion is to explore some aspects of adulthood, performance, learning, and development, to enable us to use ourselves in more meaningful ways than those which have appeared to us to be the "logical" ways.

A Basic Concept of Education

In this epoch of social, political, and economic ferment in the world, there is competition literally to survive as a nation, or even as a person on our own streets. An irrevocable force is demanding that we design an education relevant to this cataclysmic time. Accompanying all the convolutions in the national arena is the need for scholars and practitioners to evolve programs and processes which are relevant to the times. The heart of this task is to know more about learning itself. Researching, studying, and knowing are not sufficient; the new approaches must become part of the organization of the school and of the process of teaching.

We need to look at the total learning environment of the child—the home, the neighborhood, the street, the classroom, the family, the hallway, the poolroom. The school itself is becoming a community-centered institution—the school in some places is again becoming the community.

Our responsibility is to enable children to learn, not just to teach, counsel, administer, or supervise. This may mean being more conscious of the end project of our process, the child.

A Focus for Supervision

This is a time of discontinuities, unresolved conflicts, new forces, and dissimilar modes in approaching the education of children and youth. It would appear, therefore, that the goal of the supervisory leadership team of an American school is to help the teacher, in spite of all the argumentative fuss, to have a primary and authentic commitment to a basic concept of children's learning. This means that the supervisor, himself, must be a person who is self-renewing and inquiring, utilizing new findings for studying and knowing children, their lives, and where they are in the world. It means helping the teacher to be experimental in his consideration of approaches for attaining his goals for children, approaches rich in resources, challenges, and opportunities.

The teacher needs to be helped to ask of any new method, "Toward what goal for the child will it take me; what will it accomplish emotionally and intellectually for the child?" As teachers explore new solutions, the supervisor must help them relate these to a basic developmental viewpoint which recognizes the integration of what are described as affective and cognitive components of learning, with a style that permits each child to fulfill his total self.

The person performing supervisory functions is expected to know the curriculum, to know the new concepts of learning and teaching, and to help others use these understandings to develop the necessary competencies.

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development has asked itself at times whether the supervisor has the ethical right to expect another adult to change. My response is that, if a person accepts the assignment of enhancing children's learning, then it would appear to be his moral responsibility to become as competent as he can in this task.

The Adult Learner

I believe that in the field of professional development we have not given consideration to the authenticity of adulthood. We have been much seduced by some of the concepts and processes for laboratory training and, in turn, by many of the acclaimed successful systems for teaching. As a result, in our expediency to help teachers to lessen the educational gaps of our nation's children, we have often disregarded the characteristics of the adult creature we are asking to assume new competencies.

In the spring of 1967, Bank Street College of Education held a consultation on the implications of the studies of adult learning for the professional development of school personnel. We were made aware at this consultation that the research on adult learning is very limited compared with the knowledge we have about the growth and development of the child and the adolescent. My observations are derived from a number of sources, but mainly from the studies and inquiries of Bernice Neugarten and her associates of the Committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago and of the British scholar, A. D. B. Bromley of the University of Liverpool, who serves as advisor to the Medical Research Council in England.[1] It would appear essential that to guide us in designing staff development programs, we need to build programs that are relevant to training styles and development needs of the adult.

---

[1] A. D. B. Bromley. *The Psychology of the Aging.* Baltimore, Maryland: Penguin Books, 1966; Bernice L. Neugarten. "The Developmental Processes of the Adult." In: *Consultation in Adult Learning.* New York: Bank Street College of Education, 1967; Kenneth Soddy. *Men in Middle Life.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1967; R. H. Willheim and Claudia Wirth. *Lives Through the Years.* New York: Atherton Press, 1965.

Most of our early years in the space of a life are spent working toward becoming a competent adult in the social and vocational areas of society. This competence is the result of a coping strategy that evolves from the expectations of the world around us. The invariants of this cycle of life, beginning with very late adolescence or young adulthood, are those we have left to the psychiatrists and psychologists, the pseudopsychologists, and even the newspaper columnists. What is more, all have been looking at the adult with some of the same yardsticks we use in looking at the child.

What are some of the "knowns" about intelligence and achievement in the adult? This is an area of some controversy. Bromley states that intellectual capacity, in the biological sense, is reached between 15 and 25 years, and it appears the same for both sexes. He uses a definition of intelligence as the ability to formulate cognitive systems, especially in abstract, flexible, comprehensive, symbolic, and conceptual systems. He does not refer to performance or intellectual achievement, because many factors have to be considered when analyzing performance and achievement. This may imply that as we get older we are less able to form abstract principles, and also that we are less able to recognize such principles. The adult becomes more literal, more particular, and more concrete.

Among the English studies of the adult, some of the earliest and most comprehensive work was done by H. C. Lehman, who declares that as we get older we possess a greater store of wisdom and erudition, but that when a situation requires new ways of looking, new techniques, new vocabularies, the older we are the more stereotyped and rigid we become. When the situation requires a study of past knowledge and experience, the older person has the advantage.

Hoyt's research at the University of Iowa has told us that there is no relationship between college graduates' intelligence and adult achievement. Lehman studied patterns of achievement and found that very outstanding performances generally occur early in life; when the quality of the performances is less, they occur later. In his occupational studies, one vocational area that comes close to the role of the supervisor, that of the psychologist, had its highest productive periods from 25 to 29, and from 35 to 39. Lehman cautions us that achievement relates not only to mental processes, but also to:

1. Direct contact with younger people and new ideas
2. Studying and the acquiring of new information

3. Competition
4. Work incentives—salary, prestige, status, promotions
5. Incentives to take risks.

What this really says to us is that as we get older we exploit our early achievements and creative work, bask in security and tenure, write textbooks, and excel at those projects which require historical perspective and information. An astute educator made an informal comment that tenure and high salaries are the real, not the paper, tigers of educational constraints in the profession. To maintain creative activity, there must be motivation and incentive, reward, status, opportunity, team work, career planning, and reduction in administrative activity.

Characteristics of Adulthood

From studies done, both singly and together, by Neugarten and Berrin of the University of Southern California, we learn that some of the salient characteristics of adulthood are:

1. A preoccupation with self—greater interiority, turning inward
2. A concern for physical comforts—protection of the physical body, sleep, diet, recreation and leisure, work-load
3. A sense of expertness—the ability to make decisions
4. An expectation to accomplish—to finish a task
5. An executive approach to personality, that is:
    a. More selective and constrictive
    b. More reflective and introspective
    c. More processing of new input against grid of life experiences, values, and beliefs
    d. More use of expertise to consciously designed ends
    e. More value given to experience in looking at life
    f. More clarification of identity, of self
6. An increased tendency in men to respond to nurturant promptings
7. An increased tendency in women to be more aggressive and to respond
8. An increased tendency in men to deal with their environment in abstract terms
9. An increased tendency in women to deal with environment in expressive and affective terms

10. A disinclination in men to perceive of themselves as learners

11. A tendency for the biological time clock of life to be less important than the cultural expectations of the group

12. A change in personality taking place up to the very last stages of life.[2]

Neugarten suggests that as we measure adult achievement, we should do so with the consideration of these issues:

1. How an individual utilizes experiences
2. How an individual structures his special world
3. How he sees the perspective of time
4. How he views his concept of self—who and what he is
5. How he deals with life themes, such as:
    a. Work
    b. Time
    c. Death
    d. Love
    e. Success—failure.[3]

We might consider some comments about performance as well. Performance requires skills which can be defined as practical abilities involving discerning perception, expert judgment, and competent action. Skills involve many variables—including a major one, the whole person. Botwinck reports that psychomotor skill, involving speed particularly, and perceptual integrated abilities decline as we get older. Verbal skills and storing of information may increase; for people of superior ability, these do increase.

Bromley observes that motivation and attitude are important determinants of performance in adulthood. General motivation "to do" decreases; we get less enthusiastic and need strong incentives, support, and encouragement to embark on a new course of action. He declares further that circumstances and behavior become so fixed and interwoven that radical interventions such as drastic change of surroundings, a traumatic experience, or psychiatric treatment are likely to be necessary, if we can expect more than marginal adjustments.

We could continue to review some of the efficacy of findings in adult development for some time, but this is a task I leave to the reader. Yet I do want to discuss one additional factor before drawing some implications for training. Incidental learning becomes less evident as we get older. The older we get the less we catch the chance item, the non-literal, and the "not sought for." There is less serendipity and less openness and flexibility.

---

[2] Gertrude Neugarten. "Toward the Psychology of the Life Cycle." In: *Consultation in Adult Learning*. Lorraine Smithberg, editor. New York: Bank Street College of Education, 1967.

[3] *Ibid.*

Components in Staff Development

It appears to the writer that there are four major factors to consider in developing competencies and behaviors in people:

1. Opportunities for becoming aware, for understanding oneself
2. Opportunities to gain a commitment, to change, to acquire an attitude, an interest, a concern
3. Opportunities for gaining knowledge, principles, concepts
4. Opportunities to have experiences involving interaction and skill.

This construct implies that we first include in a staff development program an opportunity for the adult to gain some understanding and awareness of himself and of how others perceive him. How strong is his ego? What are his coping processes? What are his needs for security? Such awareness can be attained through individual consultation and group counseling and discussion. It does not always mean a direct confrontation of personal factors, but the process of confrontation may be the most effective. Consultation is frequently most effective when dealing with life situations and tasks. The process of consultation requires new modes on the part of the supervisor and will certainly demand training in the field of counseling.

To understand self and how one is functioning, a first step in acquiring more effective ways of working will call for some kind of feedback on performance. There are many devices in the world of media and interactive analysis systems to assist the supervisor in giving the performer a portrait of this functioning in a situation. Yet how the portrait is then used to motivate and actually enable the person to shift from present behavior to different behaviors is a process for which the supervisor must have special skills and wisdom.

A second component of the construct suggested here implies that the designer of training is well aware of the degree to which the trainee's commitment is present or needs to be aroused. This may be a factor to consider in group selection, or it may have to be built into the training approach and content for motivation.

A third component relates to the conceptual and factual knowledge input. Four constructs are not in a time sequence—the individual may become interested, motivated, and committed because of a movie he sees, a talk he hears, a field trip he takes, or a demonstration he observes.

A fourth component refers to the need for developing new competencies and behaviors. Training programs need to include experiences for the individual to practice new behaviors and receive either peer or staff feedback and analysis on his performance. Actual field activities where individuals are in real performance situations are ideal, but very difficult to include in some staff development programs. A real operation such as a school designed as a training laboratory is ideal for part of the experience. The technique of using the assimilation of a total task and organization, or the assimilation of a portion of a situation with individuals assuming roles and functions in a job situation for periods of time, is an excellent means for a person to test new behaviors and ways of working. Role playing and specific skill sessions are important for use in this regard.

A Range of Activities

Many of the observations made earlier in the chapter have implications for those designing and carrying out training programs involving adults. Programs of block or unit training such as institutes, seminars, courses, and conferences, as has been stated, need to be designed with certain factors in mind. The length of any program must be adequate to give the adult the opportunity to test new skills and to get feedback, support, and guidance.

In any concentrated seminar, time blocks for being alone are requisite. A year with certain periods of intensity and communication would appear to be minimum if new competencies are to be incorporated.

In the training process, the use of a range of activities, including a large component of actual experience within one's own assignment or in a new field or testing laboratory, is essential to permit a person to test new behaviors. Opportunities to see operating "models," to observe other simulated cases and situations, to see and hear tapes and films, are essential in showing the adult that the new ways do work. Self-reference groups of people with varied backgrounds and very divergent points of view share their learnings and experiences and provide necessary reflection and contemplation of the new.

Elements of "shock" and the dramatic in a program may be important to give some adults the necessary "jolt." The location for training teachers for the disadvantaged in the heart of rural or urban slums is an example of such a confrontation. Mixing groups with different experiences and ages in training opportunities will expose older people to the ideas and thinking of the young. With the introduction of new roles through the use of auxiliary personnel in schools, teachers and other school staff members are going to have to learn to work with and deal with the points of view of a great range of people. Training patterns must include field experiences and sessions with the kinds of people with whom the staff will actually be working.

Although this paper has dealt with understanding some of the process of adult development, enabling those of us responsible for influencing adult change to design new approaches to our professional development programs, change needs a supportive structure and system. We need organizational patterns with new role definitions and staff relationships. We in New York City are experiencing a situation whereby major study groups have recommended that the only way individuals in the system would change would be through a complete reorganization and decentralization. This may force school personnel to recast their roles and test new ways of working.

Finally, the major challenge of the whole task is to those of us who are in leadership and supervisory roles. We are progenitors of the neoteric. We are going to have to work hard at experimenting with and investigating new processes and not just at providing ideological cants. We need more than hope or ideals. We must take what we know about man and child and, in terms of our own goals for the time and the child, recognize the reality of processes which help us to achieve desirable ends. The English biologist, N. J. Berill, has said that, "The essence of man is his quality and this is no place to stop half-way between apes and angels." To be sure, we are not stopping. As Chief Justice Holmes once said, "We must all be born again atom by atom from hour to hour or perish at once beyond repair."

Theme B: Coping with Role Realities

Influencing Professional Negotiation

William F. Young

Using as a frame of reference current data on professional negotiation, William F. Young discusses the relationship of negotiations to the changing roles of professionals, and the necessity to influence positively the direction of negotiation. In the belief that the problems are critical issues for all educators nationally, he proposes realistic guidelines appropriate at local, state, and national levels. Questions are raised regarding the nature of changes brought about in decision making by negotiation, the proper role of the supervisor, and the skills needed to fill this role.

PROFESSIONAL negotiation, or collective bargaining, has set the stage for the evolution of a new era within the education profession. Teacher associations and teacher unions at the local and national levels have been organizing for the purpose of vigorously pursuing their interests at the "bargaining table." This new vigor has given rise to a strikingly different pattern of negotiation for teachers on the one hand and boards of education and school administration on the other.

The frame of reference for this discussion is the negotiation development in the State of Michigan. Since the enabling legislation was passed in 1965, Michigan school districts have had the dubious distinction of being one of the forerunners in the evolution of the negotiation phenomena rocking the education world. The school districts of Michigan are now living—and I might add learning to live—under their second master contract. They are currently preparing for 1968-69 master contract negotiations. The topic of this paper is—or shortly will be—a critical issue for all educators nationally even though the specifics may vary from state to state.

Let us look at influencing the direction of professional negotiation, with an emphasis on implications for curriculum. First we must clarify the nature of current negotiation; comment on the "new look" in the change process; make a statement on the positive potential of negotiation; give an account of the realities of negotiating; describe the changing role of curriculum workers; and discuss guidelines for negotiations relating to curricular matters.

Nature of Current Negotiation

To begin with, the most perplexing problem of our profession is that we have not learned how to negotiate professionally—and we have waited to learn until many issues rightfully belonging to professional settlement have been settled by collective bargaining. The term *professional negotiation* has been associated with the National Education Association and its affiliates, while the term *collective bargaining* has been associated with the American Federation of Teachers and its affiliates. The fact is that, regardless of terminology, negotiating groups—no matter what their affiliation—have been engaged in collective bargaining. Collective bargaining behavior and the struggle for membership between these rival teacher organizations have resulted in a polarization of organizational behavior, with the labor-management profile becoming the common mode. The resultant alienation of individuals and groups poses a challenge to all of us.

Meanwhile, those who are in settings where negotiation is not yet part of their way of life should not be naive or overly optimistic. Some school districts in Michigan were not initially concerned because they felt they had been negotiating with teachers for many years. They soon learned that they were wrong. Educators can ill afford to be in the same situation as the farmer who said, "I asked the cyclone to go around my barn, but it did not listen to me." At this time, the question before us is not whether or not we should negotiate or what is negotiable, but rather how can we best live with this new development? Further, we must address ourselves to the question of how we can influence the negotiation process to minimize or eliminate the current damaging aspects of collective bargaining and maximize the positive potentials that are inherent in a *professional negotiation* setting.

As we view labor-management negotiation in education, we tend to attribute the turmoil to the work of a few embittered radicals in the teaching profession. The fact is that what is happening in teaching is only part of a larger picture. It is part of the process of social change, and in order to understand the kinds of changes that are taking place in our society, we need to take a look at the forces at work.

The "New Look" in the Change Process

For example, militant activists are not peculiar to education. What is happening in education today is part of a sociological pattern that has resulted from dissatisfaction on the part of some people with the slow, orderly change process that has been characteristic of our society. Efforts to bring about rapid change through forced confrontation, protests, and demonstrations are becoming quite common at many levels of our society. Outside our profession we can illustrate this point by reviewing the recent summer riots, student demonstrations on campuses, orderly and disorderly anti-war demonstrations, orderly and disorderly civil rights demonstrations, the hippie movement, and the new morality. The explosive issues in our society are many and the pressures are great. Almost by definition, social upheavals are the result of the failure of social institutions to change rapidly enough to meet the changing needs of certain members of society. Social changes are going to take place in our society whether we like it or not. The question we must attend to is whether they will be orderly or disorderly.

Certainly, one contribution to order would be a renewed sense of purpose among the leaders in the education community. The administrative and supervisory staffs locally and nationally cannot afford to be driven as the pawns of a variety of pressures. Neither can we bitterly sit back, resist all change, and wait for the final explosions. We have a responsibility to assume creative leadership in an effort to resist undesirable change and to facilitate desirable change. In order to do this, we must understand the causes of these pressures, live within the reality of current approaches, design better ways of solving our professional problems, and thus achieve common goals through orderly processes.

In fairness to the total teaching profession I should clarify my remarks. I do not view all, or even the majority, of teachers as being angry, aggressive, and militant. However, it appears that the militant teachers are the vocal minority who are presently speaking for the apathetic majority. In many districts they are the organizational leaders and members of teacher bargaining teams.

The angry, aggressive, militant teacher did not just happen. He resulted from many years of frustrations growing out of low salaries; unreasonably large class sizes; inadequate facilities, equipment, and materials of instruction; lack of involvement in the decision-making process; autocratic and arbitrary administration; uninformed boards of education; the semi-bureaucratic nature of our institutions; and the reluctance of the general public to provide adequate financial support for education. These causes for the rise of the new teacher militancy cannot be attributed to all school districts. However, the negotiation patterns that have taken place in the most enlightened communities seem to exploit the abuses still found in marginal districts or those rooted out of the better districts more than a decade ago.

There is one more factor that contributed to creating the angry teacher and that cannot be ignored—the shortage of good teachers. Inadequate evaluative procedures at the preservice level and inadequate evaluative procedures at the early in-service level have permitted the entry of people into our profession who are certified but *not qualified*. Even those who are qualified too often view teaching merely as a job. They lack the attitudes and values basic to professionalism. Such teachers also lack the dedication that is essential to the art of teaching—a humanistic endeavor not circumscribed by hours, wages, and working conditions.

The new militancy among teachers is one reason there are educators who are quite emotional about negotiation and have concluded that the process is inherently bad. Their approach to the problem is to attempt to find ways of eliminating negotiation. Such an approach is unrealistic and unfair. If we view recent developments carefully and objectively, we will discover that progress has been made through the process. Further, we will find that there is positive potential that we have not yet learned how to develop.

The new force in education represented by teacher power through negotiation is long overdue. Our problems are not the new force and the rightful involvement of teachers in matters that affect them. The problems are the procedures and tactics being employed in the process and the nature of the items that are placed on the bargaining table.

The Positive Potential of Negotiation

Teachers have a right to "speak out" on all matters that affect their performance as leaders in the teaching-learning process, and they have a right to expect administrators and boards to listen to them. Expecting fair and humane treatment is not unreasonable. An opportunity for teachers to share in the determination of teaching and non-teaching responsibilities cannot be contested. Who could argue against the establishment of a two-way communication system for the resolution of educational issues and problems? Why should teachers not have a voice in curriculum and instruction? I cannot conceive of an educational program of high quality in which teachers do not share in the formulation of policy on matters that affect their teaching functions. Any position on what constitutes professional behavior should include these faculty rights. Further, to oppose teacher participation in curriculum planning and instructional improvement would contradict the position that the development of curriculum is most likely to result through team work and a co-professional approach.

The examples indicated should clearly identify the writer's position—that teachers must be involved in the decision-making process. Most of the stated goals of teacher organizations are legitimate, necessary, and basic to professionalism. However, the current power struggle too often goes beyond these goals and attempts to usurp and transfer control rather than "build in" wholesome involvement. If we can learn to live and work cooperatively as professionals in the new power relationship, there will remain a need and a place for what I call *professional negotiation*. This can be the vehicle for making significant breakthroughs in education. Such breakthroughs cannot be made within the current labor-management, collective bargaining framework. Some kind of professional negotiation will always be necessary, and it can still provide opportunities for a co-professional approach toward achievement of common goals in a rational, realistic, and responsible manner. *Professional negotiation* will be possible when teaching truly becomes a profession.

There are many reasons why a place remains for professional negotiation. Our present dilemma perhaps can be attributed to the collective bargaining approach, to inexperience with a new force, to negative attitudes, and to the striving for some goals that are divisive. I would predict that it might take educators five years to learn to function effectively without getting ground up in the machinery of negotiation. In the meantime, we must work diligently to shorten that maturation process, and at the same time we must work effectively to withhold from inclusion in master contracts those matters that will hurt education by being treated as labor-management issues. We must avoid the elimination of proper administrative responsibilities and the infringement of the rights of teachers.

I am not convinced that members of teacher bargaining teams are adequately representing the majority of the teachers. The bargainer may very well be less sensitive than is the principal or the curriculum worker to the needs and problems of the average teacher. If this assumption is correct, then some contract provisions could very well represent a disservice to many teachers. If we are not careful, teachers' freedoms and rights may inadvertently be negotiated away. Education may be reduced to an insignificant common denominator. If we are to avoid the alarming consequences of the current labor-management approach, and if we are to reserve a legitimate role for professional negotiation, we must be alert to the realities of what is happening today throughout the country.

Realities of Negotiation

Legal provisions authorizing negotiation for teachers are becoming widespread in the United States. California, Connecticut, Florida, New Jersey, Oregon, and Washington have laws on negotiation pertaining exclusively to public school personnel. Alaska, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, New York, and Wisconsin have laws on negotiation pertaining to all public employees, which include public school personnel. These listings are no doubt incomplete. Many other states have proposed legislation or pending legislation. Further, negotiation is a reality in many other states without the legal basis. Negotiation is not a localized phenomenon, it is a national trend.

In Michigan, Public Act 379, passed in 1965, guarantees teachers the right to organize, to elect a sole bargaining agent, and to bargain collectively. Section II of the law states in part:

> Representatives designated or selected for purposes of collective bargaining by the majority of the public employees in a unit appropriate for such purposes, shall be the exclusive representative of all the public employees in such unit for the purposes of collective bargaining in respect to rates of pay, wages, hours of employment, or *the conditions of employment,* and shall be so recognized by the public employer. [Italics added.]

The law has led to the creation of a bargaining unit in every school district. Further, the legislation has caused the exclusion of supervisors, curriculum workers, and principals from local educational associations. This shift has created resentment and insecurity among the excluded groups.

The law has also served to encourage teacher organizations to behave as industrial unions except that they do not have the right to strike. However, in spite of the fact that strikes are illegal, they have occurred—a few in the fall of 1965 and many more in the fall of 1967. Leaders of teacher organizations have referred to these strikes as "professional days," as "extended summer recess" periods, as "no contract-no work" periods, and as periods of "withholding services." The result of the Michigan law has been to surround the right to strike with a certain ambiguity. Any good trade union member will tell you that the right to strike is the ultimate weapon of the union and that without this weapon all other rights are merely gestures. It is obvious to me that there will be a substantial increase in the number of teachers' strikes in the future.

The industrial union concept of negotiation is reflected in the law, and the rules of the labor-management game have been followed by local bargaining units with frightening consistency. The model for collective bargaining among personnel comes from that followed in business and industry. Unrealistic demands, unrealistic counterproposals, heated bargaining sessions, the use of labor attorneys, the use of management attorneys, the use of outside professional organizers and negotiators, the struggles for control between teacher organizations, unprofessional behavior, the use of union tactics, alienation of relationships, and the general adoption of "we-they" attitudes are becoming all too common.

The effects of these approaches are predictable within the profession, in the community, and among young people. Within the profession there will be increased hostility between teachers and administrators; a new type of hostility between and among teachers; an increase in work stoppages; a lowering of morale in general;

decreased responsibility in each group for the welfare of the other group. Communication between administrators and teachers will be adversely affected; innovative and creative behavior will be stifled; professional staff members will spend tremendous amounts of time, energy, and talent in bargaining sessions and planning for negotiation at the expense of other primary professional functions; and the "thick contract," a sign of poor professional relationships, will prevail. The thick contract indicates to me that bonds of trust are lacking and that teachers are attempting to legislate for self-protection.

Outcomes within the community of the labor-management game in education are also predictable. People, community organizations, and newspapers will choose sides. Emotions will run high, resulting in damage to the school image and conflicts within the community. It will take years to rebuild the image and restore the level of respect that teachers and administrators deserve. Gaining increased financial support will become even more difficult.

The impact on children and youth of the adoption of industrial union tactics by teachers is probably less predictable at this time but perhaps more serious. We are not setting good examples of how mature, intelligent adults should resolve differences. It might be said that we are exhibiting behavior that is a direct contradiction of the stated goals of our instructional program related to proper attitudes and values basic to our democratic way of life and our Judaic-Christian culture. In some school districts, the actions taken in violation of the laws of a state pose an even more serious problem. It is difficult to understand how we can expect young people to abide by school rules, develop as good citizens, and support law and order when their teachers flout these traditional values and the law. Within the past several months I can cite four examples of high schools where students have protested by "walking out" or by striking. Young people will also lose valuable instruction time and, even when they do not, instruction will be carried on by teachers under stress. Perhaps automobiles can be built effectively by embittered auto workers, but children and youth are certain to suffer from instruction by embittered teachers.

The following headlines and article captions might serve to summarize the effects of collective bargaining in the schools (I have selected only a few):

Bystander Role Feared by Superintendents
Governor Is Blamed for Threat of Teacher Strikes

Teachers Are Militant: 40 School Openings Periled in State
Teachers' Union Rejects Arbitration Proposal
Teacher Strikes Loom in State School District
MFT Sees 16,000 out of Schools
Troy Faces Strike by Teachers
Teacher Pacts Ruled Invalid in Cherry Hill
Schools Fight Strike Threat
MEA Asks Court to Bar School Injunction Suits
Teachers Win Battle in Court
Top Mediator Summoned
Teacher Showdown Case Due for Decision of Court
DFT Has Pushed Detroit as far as It Should Go
Teachers Take a Walk
School District Fights for Life.

These headlines and article captions all appeared in newspapers in the Metropolitan Detroit area. They are illustrative of what happened in the fall of 1967 in a large city school district and in surrounding suburban communities, some of which are extremely affluent. Behind these headlines were "around the clock" bargaining sessions, bitter emotional battles, and damage to professional relationships that will take years to rebuild. The labor-management battle in one Michigan school district resulted in the death of a teachers' union.

The Changing Role of Curriculum Workers

One of the critical questions before us as a result of facing the realities of collective bargaining by teachers is how these developments have changed the role of the curriculum worker. When we speak of supervisors and curriculum workers, we are not speaking about just two professional job classifications. Those at the administrative level who have responsibility for leadership in curriculum have many different titles. Some of the job titles are: curriculum director, elementary supervisor, director of instruction, curriculum consultant, assistant superintendent in charge of curriculum, director of elementary curriculum, associate superintendent for curriculum and instruction, and director of secondary education.

Curriculum generalists and specialists both are included in large school districts. They both add further to the number of titles. A wide variance between school districts also exists in relation to functions and responsibilities of curriculum workers. Most organizational charts are unique to individual districts and bear little resemblance to those of neighboring school districts. For these reasons I will refer to both supervisors and curriculum workers as *curriculum workers.*

In the past decade, the role of the curriculum worker has changed and has become more important than ever before. Rapid societal changes have mandated revisions in the instructional programs of the schools. As needs of individuals and society change, school programs must change to be relevant. However, my purpose is not to discuss role change in this context, since we all are aware of these developments. My purpose is to look at the role of the curriculum worker as it has been affected by negotiation.

The major impact of negotiation on the role of the curriculum worker is that negotiations have had a marked influence on the working relationships in schools. The very nature of the collective bargaining process has changed the role of the curriculum worker, and it will continue to do so. I mentioned earlier that curriculum workers have been excluded from local educational associations. By definition, the process is based upon "adversary" relationships. Any antagonism that exists between the teacher group and the administration-school board group is bound to affect curriculum workers. They are caught up in the power struggle. Some curriculum workers are wondering which way they should go—whether they should align with the teacher group or the administration-school board group. I do not believe they really have a choice. Curriculum workers are administrators, regardless of whether they have line authority functions or staff service functions. Further, in present negotiation terminology, and as a legal interpretation, they are part of management. It is granted that this makes their roles precarious ones and makes it more difficult for them to carry out their curriculum-leadership functions.

A good example of their dilemma involves a grievance hearing which I recently sat in on at the level of the superintendent of schools. The hearing included three teachers, the union president, the superintendent, the personnel director who also acted as chief negotiator for the administration and the board, one central office curriculum consultant, and the director of elementary curriculum. The presence of the consultant and director was proper in this instance, and they made significant contributions toward the resolution of the problem. This represents a new role for curriculum workers and requires new skills. The problem for the curriculum worker becomes one of assuming this new type of professional responsibility and at the same time protecting working relationships with teachers. Curriculum workers are walking a tightrope. We all are.

Another obstacle to the effective leadership of curriculum workers has to do with bargaining demands that relate directly to curriculum, and with final contract provisions that impinge on the role of the curriculum worker. This problem is raised in the April 1966 issue of *Educational Leadership*. William C. Miller states:

> Several state teacher organizations have supplied local groups with a "model contract." This agreement suggests that items such as the following be covered: released time for professional meetings, teaching hours, number of weekly teaching periods, teaching assignments, transfer and reassignment policies, pupil-teacher ratios, procedures for selection and use of educational tools, equipment and materials. These are obviously all curriculum issues.[1]

Other common demands appearing these days include: curriculum committee membership selection procedures; the clock length of the working day; the length of the school year; restrictions on classroom visitations; preparation periods for elementary teachers during art, music, and physical education instructional time; and class size maximums.

Clearly, many of these demands have the potential of changing the role of the curriculum workers and other administrative staff members because they involve curriculum directly. Some demands even tend to dictate school organizational patterns. One of these is class size.

The establishment of rigid, arbitrary maximum class size is educationally unsound and is not in the best interest of good education. Let us assume that the magic number of 30 became a part of a master contract as a class size maximum. Some of the results could well be as follows:

1. In an elementary school that reached an enrollment figure of 31 at a given grade level, it would be necessary to add a second teacher and use an additional classroom. These two classes, one of 16 and one of 15, would then exist in a school where all other classes might be near 30 in size.

2. There would be a tendency for all classes to be near 30 regardless of the educational level and the nature of the instructional program.

---

[1] William C. Miller. "Curricular Implications of Negotiation." *Educational Leadership* 23 (7): 535; April 1966.

3. Innovative programs such as team teaching and large group instruction would not be possible.

4. Vocal and instrumental music teachers would be deprived of the opportunity of working in a class setting with large groups, even when that might be desirable from every point of view.

5. Living within this limitation could require additional bussing of students and the "splitting of families." This has happened in Michigan as a result of one master contract provision.

6. In large districts, this approach could result in the need for promoting a bond issue for the purpose of constructing additional classrooms and/or school buildings.

These are only a few illustrations and should not be evaluated individually. The point is that an arbitrary figure could create more problems than it would solve.

In any case, the financial implications of rigid class maximums should be carefully weighed. Education might better be served by putting the money that might be required for additional teachers, classrooms, or buses into salaries, curriculum research, additional instructional equipment, and additional instructional materials. Determination of proper class size is a complex matter requiring sound professional judgment. Such a matter does not lend itself to simple solutions. Responsible decision making in this area necessitates careful consideration of factors such as the level of instruction, the nature of the instructional content, the nature of the total program, the nature of the student body, the nature of the school community, the type and condition of school facilities, the enrollment of the school, and the distribution of students by grade level. Teachers can and must be involved in these professional considerations. Financial limitations must also be part of the consideration, since broadly based value judgments are necessary in deciding how limited funds should be expended.

Working relationships for curriculum workers have also been altered because a position of the "greatest good for the greatest number" has adversely affected some minority groups within the teachers' group. An example might be a reduction in the staff of elementary art teachers to effect a budget saving necessitated by increased expenditures resulting from negotiation. Teacher gains at the expense of other teachers and children should be viewed very critically.

Because the impact of negotiation has affected the role of curriculum workers, and because this role adaptation directly affects the quality of education, curriculum workers have a right to be concerned. Further, they have an obligation to exert active leadership in an effort to influence negotiations. In order to do this, curriculum workers must:

1. Understand all the dimensions of the collective bargaining process and develop new skills so that they can work effectively in this setting
2. Know, understand, and abide by all the provisions of the master contract
3. Play a primary positive role in negotiations from a secondary position
4. Maintain open communication with all groups so that they are in a position to advise, consult, and influence
5. Live as effectively as possible with what is, and work to improve the collective bargaining process
6. Exert efforts to be a unifying force in the negotiation process
7. Facilitate and speed up, in every way possible, the transition from collective bargaining to professional negotiation.

I am confident that these tasks can be accomplished if we set our minds to it and pool our resources in the effort. Sitting around and complaining will not contribute much. It is said that if you do not know where you are going, any road will get you there. As curriculum workers, we must know where we are going and how to get there. We need to take positive action, and we need to do it fast.

Guidelines for Negotiation on Curriculum Matters

Determining what we must do is comparatively simple. The "how" becomes much more difficult. I believe the answer to this question depends on curriculum workers' exerting initiative for the consideration of and agreement on the nature of curriculum development work and the development of guidelines for negotiation on matters related to curriculum.

It is quite common these days to hear administrators and teachers say that curriculum matters should not be negotiated. Myron Lieberman, an authority on negotiation and a strong advocate of collective bargaining, addressed this problem in the book entitled, *Collective Negotiations for Teachers: An Approach to School Administration*. He states as follows:

> One would hardly expect or desire that curriculum, methodology, or educational services be subjected to the pressures that inevitably characterize negotiations over conditions of employment.[2]

However, general comments of this type will not have an impact. We must be more explicit. First we need a basis for supporting the generalization and then we need guidelines that will provide guidance for negotiators on both sides of the table.

It seems to me that the very nature of curriculum development work places it in a different category than wages, hours, and certain other conditions of employment. The nature of curriculum development and the conditions under which it best takes place can be briefly stated as follows:

1. Curriculum development is a growth and study process that evolves as a result of interaction between teachers and administrators.

2. The end products of curriculum study continually change as a result of the study process.

3. The people who are to be affected by curriculum decisions should be involved in the decision-making process.

4. The best atmosphere for significant curriculum development is one in which teachers and curriculum workers function as co-professionals drawing upon a variety of human and material resources in the pursuit of improved programs.

5. Curriculum development work is most productive when a high degree of mutual faith, trust, and respect exists among all professional staff members.

If agreement is reached on statements such as these, then guidelines can be developed that will be neither pro-teacher nor pro-administrator.

The guidelines will reflect what would best serve all professional staff members and the instructional program. I respectfully submit for consideration the following guidelines for negotiation on matters that relate to curriculum:

---

[2] Myron Lieberman and Michael H. Moskow. *Collective Negotiations for Teachers: An Approach to School Administration.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1966. Reprinted by permission of author and publisher.

1. Welfare matters and curriculum matters should be subject to different approaches.

2. Curriculum development activities and curriculum content should not be negotiated, since they do not lend themselves to predetermination, compromise through bargaining, and antagonistic confrontation.

3. Negotiation in the area of curriculum should be limited to organizational patterns, representation in curriculum development activities, and structure for curriculum decision making.

4. Contract language and legalistic terminology that would be restrictive and prescriptive should be avoided.

5. The responsibilities of teachers and curriculum workers and their authority for carrying these out should be safeguarded.

6. Teachers and administrators should be free to utilize their strengths, encouraged to be creative, encouraged to innovate, and given the freedom to be flexible within the limits of existing programs.

7. Teachers and administrators should be encouraged to attempt new approaches and new programs without being limited by a master contract.

Ideally, guidelines of this type should be developed cooperatively by teachers and administrators in a local district prior to the beginning of negotiation sessions; in fact, they should be developed prior to the assembling of bargaining "packages" or "demands." I believe this task could not be accomplished after bargaining positions have been taken. I would propose that in local districts the workshop approach be used, with time provided for thoughtful consideration and the honest exchange of ideas. The workshop members should include teachers, curriculum workers, principals, the superintendent, and board of education members. The purpose of the workshop would be to discuss curriculum in negotiation and to develop guidelines for handling curriculum in the bargaining sessions.

Since considerable guidance and direction in negotiation emanate from state and national associations, efforts must be exerted to work with these groups through a similar approach. In Michigan, such an effort would include working with the Michigan Education Association, the Michigan Federation of Teachers, the Michigan Association of School Boards, the Michigan Association of School Administrators, the Michigan Association of Elementary School Principals, the Michigan Association of Secondary School Principals, and the Michigan Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The Michigan State Board of Education should also be included. I would assume that target associations at the national level would be the parent associations of these state groups.

I readily admit that what I am proposing is ambitious. The accomplishment of these goals would be difficult because of the tenor of the times. But it can be done—in fact, it must be done. However, it will not be done unless somebody or some group assumes the initiative. In my opinion, the logical initiators are the curriculum workers at the local level, the ASCD affiliates at the state level, and the ASCD at the national level.

Tremendous strides could be made if state and national leadership groups would support realistic guidelines defining the relationship of curriculum to negotiation. The identification of ASCD affiliates at the state level and of ASCD at the national level as being concerned with professional negotiation appears logical to me because these groups represent the potential unifying force in the current dilemma. They are the organizations most concerned about curriculum and instruction, as exhibited by the nature of their interests and the nature of their activities. Welfare matters for members of these associations have not been their primary concern. In addition, their membership is most representative of the total profession. And last, these associations have not been on the "firing line" or in the "heat of the battle" in negotiations. These facts should make them more acceptable to other associations.

Realistic, objective, and acceptable guidelines were needed two years ago. They are needed even more today. We can contribute significantly if we pool our resources and make a determined effort. The most difficult part of any task is to make a beginning. In this area of concern, a beginning is long overdue.

This paper has represented a vital concern I have for our profession—a concern that I am sure the reader shares. I have attempted to explain that we are not currently engaged in *professional negotiation* but rather in *collective bargaining*. The latter process is inappropriate for our profession and has had, and will continue to have, many damaging results. The attempt to bring about drastic change through forced confrontation, protests, and demonstrations is not peculiar to education in the year 1967. I have also tried to show that the positive potential of professional negotiation cannot be denied. Curriculum workers must understand how their role has changed, and they must develop new skills in order to operate effectively in this new setting. Finally, I have stated what I believe would be sensible guidelines for negotiation, items that are curricular in nature, and how such guidelines could be developed cooperatively within the present power structure.

At this point in time, we have a choice. We can voice our concern to friends, neighbors, and relatives, or we can even go beyond—we can take a "sour grapes" posture at professional meetings and in small group professional settings. We can assume that the situation is hopeless.

There is one more option. We can accept the fact that we have a serious problem and start doing something about it in a positive way. We can find individuals and groups that share this concern—then organize professionally, and politically if necessary, to do something constructive about the situation. We *can* influence professional negotiation.

Theme B: Coping with Role Realities

Assessment of Learning Outcomes

J. Thomas Hastings

This, the third presentation dealing with Theme B, points to the need for a framework for the larger context of educational evaluation in which the assessment of learning outcomes has a meaningful part. J. Thomas Hastings presents several evaluative schemata appropriate to his view of the responsibilities of the supervisor as an appraiser of the learning outcomes of innovative practice, as one who knows sources for acquiring needed expertise, including those of other disciplines, and as one who has the ability to coordinate the team which works upon evaluation in a broad perspective.

FOR years supervisors have been evaluating educational endeavors, from personnel to programs, from students to curricula, from specific teaching acts to rather complicated organizational structures. Let me quickly add that I could have put with equal verity almost any other noun referring to generalized roles of those interested in education in that sentence in the place of the word *supervisors*. Evaluation is carried on by teachers, by pupils, by parents, by boards of education, and by congressmen. Evaluation in one general sense of the word is truly ubiquitous and probably will remain so. One of the reasons we have so many different evaluations by so many different people is that the educational establishment has not been extremely serious, nor has society at large, about systematic and replicable evaluation.

Evaluation—the Current Climate

In the past few years, however, we have seen a real urgency about and a ferment in evaluation. The increase in expenditures for organized course-content improvement, curriculum-development projects, and Title III ventures has been tremendous. Top scholars in various disciplines, as well as leading educationists, have been heavily involved in the development and reorganization of courses, curricula, methods, and materials. I need not remind readers in the schools that somehow or other the local decision to adopt textbook A as opposed to textbook B was never quite so prominent, so noticed, and so crowded with real feelings as has been the decision as to whether to adopt the fruits of nationally known curriculum project X or nationally known curriculum project Y. Pressures for some kind of believable evaluation have varied directly with the increase in prominence and expenditures. Suffice it to say that all of us realize, or should realize, that evaluation within the school is one of the important realities.

As usual, the *supervisor* is looked to for real help in connection with this reality. It is quite true that others are being asked to do something about it also. For example, curriculum project directors on a national level, with private or federal funds, are expected to take evaluation seriously. Also, the classroom teacher is expected to know more about and be more objective in evaluation. Yet especially in this latter case, the *supervisor* is expected to give the leadership for the classroom teachers.

The title of my paper is "Assessment of Learning Outcomes." I promised to delineate some of the skills and the competences required for a supervisor in the role of assessor of learning outcomes. Although I intend to do just that to the best of my ability, I find that for my own peace of mind, whether for that of the reader or not, I simply must start with a framework for the larger context of evaluation of educational endeavors—a framework in which the assessment of learning outcomes has a meaningful part. It is my contention that the supervisor and other educational personnel—from the national curriculum developer to the classroom teacher and from the administrator to the outside consultant—must be aware of this *larger* concern of educational evaluation. Also—and I hope my later words will support my contention—I doubt seriously that any supervisor can have real expertise in *all* of the facets of the assessment of learning outcomes, let alone in all of the complex endeavors of educational evaluation.

If the school is to take evaluation seriously, specialized personnel will have to be used—as staff or as consultants. The main skills of the supervisor in this area, as I believe they are in many areas, will encompass a knowledge of the *sources* of expertise needed, a familiarity *in a general way* with many of the *skills*, and an ability to coordinate the team which works upon assessment of learning outcomes and evaluation.[1]

An Expanded Concept of Evaluation

Educational evaluation is aimed at an increase in rationality of decisions which affect the establishment. Educational evaluation consists of description on the one hand and judgment on the other. The more reliable the description, the better. The more replicable the techniques, the better. The more that we know about *who* makes *what* judgments about *what* descriptions with *what* standards, the better.

For many years educational evaluation was talked about in terms of learning outcomes only. In the past four or five years there have been a number of papers which have broadened this concept considerably. One important picture of the larger context of evaluation was presented by Robert E. Stake. Figure 1 is an

Intents	Observations	Standards	Judgments
	ANTECEDENTS		
	TRANSACTIONS		
Student learning	OUTCOMES		

(Adapted from: Robert E. Stake. "The Countenance of Educational Evaluation." *Teachers College Record* 68: 523-40; April 1967.)

Figure 1. Evaluation: Data To Be Collected

adaptation of Stake's schema for the data to be collected in educational evaluation. The various cells in this matrix have further subdivisions. For example, in the cell formed by the row called *antecedents* and the column called *intents* we think of student antecedents, such as aptitude scores, interests, motivations—but we also could have antecedents for the teacher: his training, interests, and educational viewpoints. In addition, we might have antecedents concerning the relationships among disciplines within the school. *Transactions* (the second row) have to do with instrumental evaluation—the teaching-learning treatments. In connection with a classroom they encompass the verbal and nonverbal behaviors of the teacher and the relationships between these and the actions and reactions of the students. The *outcomes row* includes what we usually think of as learning outcomes on the part of the student; but it also encompasses other kinds of outcomes, from teacher to school. In all three of these—antecedents, transactions, and outcomes—Stake would have us gather information on the intentions, the observations of the actual thing, the standards which are used variously by various people, and the judgments which are available.

---

[1] A list of selected references appears at the end of this paper and includes those articles and studies to which I shall refer only by a person's name. I also have put in that list references to other articles which I shall not mention in this presentation but which I hope some readers will consult in their movement forward in this altering role.

If we think of this paper in relationship to this broad schema of educational evaluation presented by Stake, my main focus is to deal with the first two cells in the third row, and then only with the student. In other words, we are basically concerned today with a small part of the total scope—intended student-learning outcomes and observed student-learning outcomes. To miss the point that these learning outcomes are part of a larger framework would amount to a real lack of competence on the part of the supervisor.

Assessment of student outcomes is no less important, but the task is set in a larger context. A plan of attack which most of us in education have heard most about and which is described most frequently in textbooks of the past 25 years is the model developed by Ralph W. Tyler some 33 years ago. The model is based on thinking which goes something like this: If education is anything at all, it is a process of changing behaviors, that is, of increasing an individual's response repertoire. Through education the student can respond to various stimuli (from simple to very complex) in ways in which he could *not previously* respond. The steps to be taken in evaluation within this framework are represented in Figure 2.

First, one *states the objectives* of the instructional unit with which he is concerned. For example: "The student will understand linear relationships" or "The individual will take into account various factors in voting." The second step is that of stating objectives such as these in terms of *behavioral outcomes:* What precisely does a person do when he does understand relationships? What factors does he take into account, and how does he take them into account when exhibiting voting behavior? This step demands that one must translate such covert behaviors as "understanding" or "taking into account" into observable responses to known stimuli or situations. The third step in the approach is that of *stating the situations* which will call forth the behaviors demanded by the definitions. It is at this point that the model has been used most frequently to set up test items which purportedly call for the behavior desired.

The fourth step in this total process is one of devising means of *recording the responses* identified with the situations. Obviously, in a regular test-format, the student does his own recording. It might be, however, that the situation is such that an external observer would be doing the recording. Tyler certainly does not limit the behaviors only to those which can be expressed through paper-and-pencil tests. The fifth step is that of devising some means of combining or *summarizing responses* in order to make interpretative statements about the behavioral changes which have taken place. The final step is that of assessing the *extent* to which the *original objectives have been met.*

In brief, the force of this particular approach is to encourage those developing instruction to attempt to be explicit about the

1. Stating objective	To apply the principle of. . . .
2. Translating to behavioral terms	When presented with a new problem involving. . . .
3. Situation (stimulus) to call for behavior	Presented with a problem in the laboratory and materials. . . .
4. Recording responses	Observer uses check list and notes actions of student. . . .
5. Summarizing information	Figure percentage of correct, incorrect, and irrelevant moves. . . .
6. Comparing result of 5 with expected 1.	Over samples/with other students/ with pre-treatment measure/. . . .

(Adapted from Eugene R. Smith and Ralph W. Tyler. *Appraising and Recording Student Progress.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942.)

Figure 2. Steps From Objectives to Appraisal

changes in behavior they are trying to bring about in the students. It has helped throughout the total establishment of education to focus attention upon the fact that instruction consists of both *content* and *behavior*. Supervisors of instruction and local curriculum developers definitely should gain some skill in using this approach in their attempts at assessment of learning outcomes. Perhaps even more important, they should gain that kind of command of the process which allows them to help teachers to think of both instruction and assessment in these terms.

This means to me, among other things, that supervisors should collect samples of good translations of objectives into behavioral terms. Besides those which they or their fellow teachers have developed, the sample file should contain examples from both domains of the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*.[2] One will find good examples in several descriptions of ongoing evaluation appearing in books by Paul Dressel and others. Perhaps the classic application of the model was in the Eight-Year Study of Secondary Education; this application is described in a book by Smith and Tyler. A number of current textbooks also have good examples.

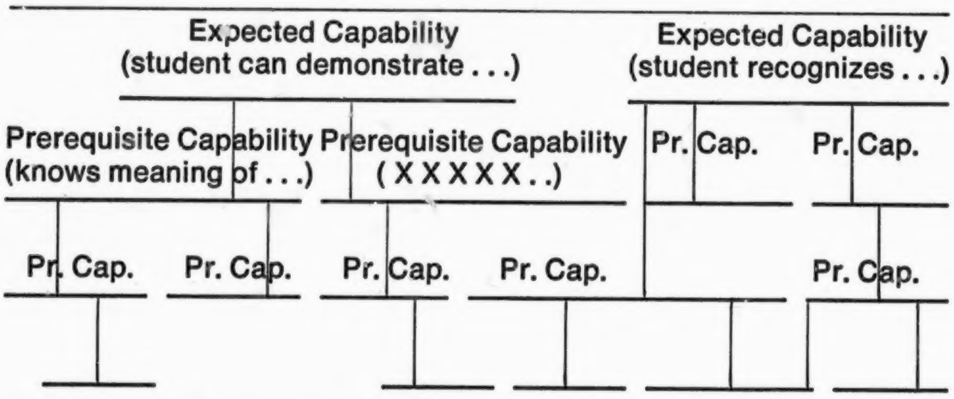
Although Tyler's model ties the data-collection part of the evaluation procedure to the objectives, it does not by itself tend to relate interpretation of results to the course procedures or materials. A second model dealing with assessment of outcomes does tie instructional procedure and materials directly to the assessment end. I will refer to this as the Gagné approach, although the ideas appear in quite a number of papers and books dealing with programmed instruction.

Gagné starts the approach with a step seemingly very similar, if not identical, to the first step in Tyler's approach. The person developing the sequence states a *student capability* which is desired. Gagné speaks of these expected student capabilities as "units of content." For example, an expected capability in an elementary school science course or perhaps in a secondary school math course, or elsewhere, might be "ability to distinguish between instances of direct measurement and indirect measurement"—a concept relating technique, object, observation, and inference. Another example of an expected capability might be "ability to identify certain physiological functions with particular structures."

Gagné goes on to say that a capability such as this must be so stated that it can be acquired under a single set of learning conditions or, in slightly different words, that the learning conditions include certain specified *prerequisite capabilities.* Figure 3 is merely a schema to illustrate the nature of this model. In connection with the capability concerning indirect measurement, the prerequisite capabilities would include what is meant by inference, the broad meaning and application of observation, and ideas about measurement. In a similar fashion we could write prerequisite capabilities for the original one stated previously for physiology—dealing with function and structure.

---

[2] See both Bloom and Krathwohl in the references.


Expected Capability
(student can demonstrate . . .)
Expected Capability
(student recognizes . . .)
Prerequisite Capability
(knows meaning of . . .)
Prerequisite Capability
(X X X X X . .)
Pr. Cap.
Pr. Cap.
Pr. Cap.
Pr. Cap.
Pr. Cap.
Pr. Cap.
Pr. Cap.
Pr. Cap.
Pr. Cap.

(Adapted from Robert M. Gagné. "Curriculum Research and Promotion of Learning." *AERA Monograph Series on Curriculum Evaluation,* Volume 1. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1967. Reprinted by permission of author and publisher.)

Figure 3. Curriculum Development-Assessment Scheme

Now obviously one could carry this prerequisite demand back to the level of reading or spelling or even of perceiving letters on the page. It would be possible, in effect, to build the curriculum by thinking of these, as Gagné does, as "units of content." The implication of this approach to curriculum development suggests that the developer should start out with a clear statement of some particular capability he expects of the students and then progressively work backward from this to the lower levels of prerequisite capabilities. Any one course would obviously have a number of such threads running through it. Certain prerequisite capabilities would be the same for some of the end performances. My schema in Figure 3 suggests this by representing an intersect of certain prerequisite capabilities.

This approach by Gagné focuses upon the *assessment of outcomes* as a matter of testing the effectiveness of the curriculum, the curriculum being the whole pattern of sequential "units of content." The assessment of both the material and the sequence is accomplished by the straightforward method (albeit difficult work) of designing and administering a test which has been especially constructed to yield pass-fail information on *each* capability in the total sequence. Since the content elements of the curriculum—the learning sequence—are already stated as capabilities on the part of the student, one does not have too much further to go in order to develop test items concerning them. Each item is designed to test whether the student *can or cannot* exhibit the performance required by *each* capability in the hierarchy.

Implications for Supervision

Supervisors need to develop the competence of distinguishing instruction for which this model *is* applicable from those sorts of instruction (for example, in the humanities) for which it is *less* applicable. The supervisor should also develop some skill in the job of task analysis—the stating of the prerequisite capabilities at each level of the hierarchy.

In developing competence and skill with either the Tylerian or the Gagné approach, the supervisor would do well to take a look at a book by Robert F. Mager, *Preparing Objectives for Programmed Instruction*. Mager treats in a very explicit fashion some of the "do's and don't's" in the process of trying to state objectives explicitly in terms of behavior. Figure 4 identifies a couple of the

---

Interpretability of Verbs

To see the difference between . . .	To state the difference between . . .
To know . . .	To identify . . .
To understand . . .	To select . . .

Stating of Conditions

Given access to appropriate reference books, he should be able to solve . . .

Should be able to differentiate between two meanings of a word *when encountered in context* of . . .

(Adapted from Robert F. Mager. *Preparing Objectives for Programmed Instruction.* Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers, 1961.)

Figure 4. Communication of Desired Instructional Outcomes

concerns which Mager would have us give to the stating of objectives. The first deals with the use of verbs which are open to many interpretations (and which therefore are somewhat ambiguous) as compared to the use of the words which have fewer interpretations and which therefore suggest acts which can be communicated. For instance, in describing an expected outcome, the use of the phrase "to see the difference between this or that" leads to more operational interpretations than does the expression "to state the difference between." Or again, "to know" is less interpretable than "to identify." The supervisor should become highly aware of his own usage of language in this respect.

Another lesson which Mager stresses is indicated in Figure 4 under the heading of "Stating of Conditions." It does make quite a difference as to whether we say that the learner should be able to solve this type of physics problem or whether we say, "Given access to appropriate reference books, he should be able to solve this particular type of problem." Again, to say that a learner should differentiate between the meanings of two words is better communicated if we indicate that the learner is to do this differentiation when the words are in context—or when they are not. The whole purpose of this section of my paper is to indicate that, whether the supervisor is to be the assessor of the outcomes or is to be the leader of a group attempting to assess outcomes, he has a responsibility for gaining some skill with these techniques of stating objectives behaviorally in such a way that they actually communicate operational acts.

Earlier in this paper I referred to a model by Stake which gave a more complete context of evaluation. Also, in an earlier paper I emphasized the need for more information than descriptions of outcomes if one is to make real changes or if one is to make rational decisions about acceptance and rejection of materials and methods. Still another problem that arises when one uses in too constricted a fashion the approaches suggested by Tyler, Gagné, and Mager was expressed very well in an article by J. Myron Atkin in 1963. He pointed out the problems inherent in attempting to state all objectives in behavioral terms *prior* to the *use* of innovative material. Very appropriately, in my estimation, Atkin would have us look carefully for outcomes—both favorable and unfavorable—which were not, and probably could not have been, stated prior to actual use of the materials.

Any reader of this paper who has had experience in a classroom should be able to give his own examples of certain outcomes which were *not* anticipated. Atkin predicts, with a considerable degree of experience and logic, that if one asks developers of new materials to follow the Gagné-Mager procedures, he may end up with outcomes which are purely in the verbal-knowledge category. You have noted, I am sure, that in Stake's model he asks for data to be collected on *intended outcomes,* but he also has a different category for data to be collected on *observed outcomes.* Easley, in a paper which deals with a slightly different topic—educational research—but is very relevant to our concerns, suggests that we need to use methods which allow us to describe carefully, and to analyze, the phenomena of instruction.

Utilizing Data and Ideas from the Disciplines

Figure 5 suggests something that we have learned in our work in CIRCE with many different curriculum situations. It is extremely important to look across many disciplines for techniques and points of view which will help us assess the learning outcomes. To date most of the assessment of learning outcomes carried on in the school uses techniques and points of view which come to us out of psychometrics and psychology of learning. Figure 5 suggests that we need desperately to go to other disciplines for their expertise in certain techniques developed for special purposes.

	Psychology	Sociology	Anthropology	Ethology	Philosophy	Economics
Testing skills	X					
Observation schedules	X		X	X		
Questionnaires	X	X			X	
Cost benefit	X				X	X
Analysis	X	X	X	X	X	X

Figure 5. Techniques Helpful in Assessing Learning Outcomes

Ethologists in zoology have used a set of techniques which is sometimes referred to as "living with the animals." When they study the behavior of lions or the behavior of antelopes, they spend long periods making careful observations of the animals in their "natural environment." Supervisory personnel must in some way learn more about the expertise of ethologists if they are to look at learning outcomes which were not originally stated as intended. In a book by Webb and others, one finds excellent coverage of certain techniques which have been developed in all of the behavioral sciences—including history.

The supervisor is the most likely person in the school to perform the role of calling upon experts from various disciplines for appropriate techniques in the collection of data on learning outcomes. The supervisor who is wanting to look at learning outcomes must keep clearly in mind that there are other aspects—transactions and antecedents—without which the outcomes may afford much less than a whole story.

I stated near the beginning of this paper that I had some doubts that any one supervisor should be asked or would be able to develop the expertise from each of many disciplines for the fundamental job of assessing outcomes. There are specific skills and competences which are required of the supervisor in today's educational ferment and its demands on assessing learning outcomes.

Let me summarize by saying he should be highly aware of the newer and broader looks at the total picture of evaluation. He should be able to illustrate some of the techniques described by Tyler, Gagné, and Mager. Equally true, however, is the need for the supervisor to be able to communicate to teachers and to the administration the need for equipment and personnel which will allow him to direct a meaningful assessment of student outcomes. Different supervisors will have somewhat different sets of skills and competences which they themselves can apply. They must, however, have a number of things in common: a broad understanding of the kinds and sources of data; the variety of roles of evaluation; the kinds of techniques accessible and demanded; and the skills required for persuading teachers, administrators, the citizenry at large, and the policy makers at state and national levels that the assessment of student outcomes must be taken seriously in a context of educational evaluation.

References

J. M. Atkin. "Some Evaluation Problems in a Course Content Improvement Project." *Journal of Research in Science Teaching* 1: 129-32; 1963.

Benjamin S. Bloom, editor. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain.* New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1956.

L. J. Cronbach. "Course Improvement Through Evaluation." *Teachers College Record* 64: 672-83; 1963.

Paul L. Dressel and Lewis B. Mayhew. *General Education: Explorations in Evaluation.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1954.

Paul L. Dressel and associates. *Evaluation in Higher Education.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1961.

John A. Easley, Jr. "The General and the Particular in Educational Research." *Curriculum Laboratory Working Paper,* No. 10. Urbana: College of Education, University of Illinois, June 1967.

Robert M. Gagné. "Curriculum Research and the Promotion of Learning." *AERA Monograph Series on Curriculum Evaluation,* Vol. 1. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1967.

J. J. Gallagher. "Teacher Variation in Concept Presentation." *Newsletter of the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study,* No. 30. Boulder: University of Colorado, January 1967.

J. T. Hastings. "Curriculum Evaluation: The Why of the Outcomes." *Journal of Educational Measurement* 3: 27-32, 1966.

David R. Krathwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom, and Bertram B. Masia. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain.* New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1964.

David R. Krathwohl. "Stating Objectives Appropriately for Program, for Curriculum, and for Instructional Materials Development." *Journal of Teacher Education* 12: 83-92; 1965.

Dan Lortie (Interviewee). "Rational Decisions on School Curricula." *Curriculum Laboratory Working Paper,* No. 5. Urbana: College of Education, University of Illinois, October 1966.

Robert F. Mager. *Preparing Objectives for Programmed Instruction.* San Francisco: Fearon Publishers, 1961.

T. O. Maguire. "Value Components of Teachers' Judgments of Educational Objectives." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, 1967.

D. W. Paden. "Instructional Television and the Programming Process." *National Society for Programmed Instruction Journal* 6: 4-9; 1967.

Michael Scriven. "The Methodology of Evaluation." *AERA Monograph Series on Curriculum Evaluation,* Vol. 1. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1967.

B. O. Smith and M. O. Meux. *A Study of the Logic of Teaching,* USOE Cooperative Research Project No. 258. Urbana: Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois, 1962.

Eugene R. Smith and Ralph W. Tyler. *Appraising and Recording Student Progress.* New York: Harper and Brothers (Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc.), 1942.

Robert E. Stake. "The Countenance of Educational Evaluation." *Teachers College Record* 68: 523-40; April 1967.

P. A. Taylor. "The Mapping of Concepts." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, 1966.

R. W. Tyler. *Constructing Achievement Tests* (Reprints from the *Educational Research Bulletin,* The Ohio State University). Columbus: The Ohio State University, 1934.

Eugene J. Webb *et al. Unobtrusive Measures: Nonreactive Research in the Social Sciences.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1966.

Coordinating the Team

George W. Denemark

We must abandon the concept of the "omnicapable" teacher working in lonely professional isolation. We must instead, according to George W. Denemark, view teaching as participation in an instructional team including a broad range of properly coordinated professional and paraprofessional workers. He notes how new developments affect the supervisor and his relationship to the teacher and his staff, and he analyzes the work of paraprofessionals and teacher aides as supporting staff for the classroom teacher.

CHANGES occurring in the role of today's teacher suggest dramatic and far-reaching implications for the role of supervisors and curriculum workers. Although much is being said currently about the changing role of the classroom teacher, little attention has been paid to the ways in which the concept of a support staff for the modern teacher will affect the ways in which supervisors relate to this new breed of teacher.

Changing Teacher Roles

Let us first identify some of the major characteristics associated with the changing role of the classroom teacher and next consider some of the implications of these changes for the supervisor. The first dimension of the assignment can be dealt with more confidently than the second, for many educators have been experimenting with and writing about some new concepts of teacher utilization. The second will of necessity be largely speculative and based upon predictions which stem from logical analysis rather than from observable trends.

One of the most exciting and important things that has happened to the concept of teaching in many years—perhaps in a half-century or more—has been the current departure from the image of the teacher as an isolated adult working in lonely professional solitude with a standard size group of children. The impossible demands upon the classroom teacher—demands ranging all the way from the most complex and sophisticated professional diagnoses to a host of routine clerical and custodial burdens—have convinced many thoughtful educators and school board members of the validity of the concepts of a supportive staff for the classroom teacher and of differentiated roles for classroom instructional personnel. In an age of growing demands upon the school for an expanding range of urgent social and economic objectives, demands which the school has often been unable to meet adequately, it is more apparent than ever that we must abandon the concept of the "omnicapable" teacher. Instead, we must view teaching as participation in an instructional team including a broad range of properly coordinated professional and paraprofessional workers.

Of special significance is the changing role of the elementary teacher. The traditional concept of the elementary teacher has been that of a "jack-of-all-trades" generalist, capable of working effectively with a group of 25-35 children for six hours per day in all or most of the subject fields. The alternative to this concept has been seen as acceptance of the departmentalized approach common to most secondary schools where teachers offer courses in the various subject fields and students move from one instructor to another, depending upon the subject under study.

Fortunately, an increasing number of school systems have decided that neither of these alternatives represents an appropriate pattern for instruction in the elementary school. Instead, they are turning with increasing frequency to approaches which are aimed at maintaining an integrated, coordinated approach to teaching and learning while recognizing that the demands of the task require the special talents and energies of an instructional team rather than a single teacher.

Analyses of teaching responsibilities have disclosed many different levels of knowledge and skill. Some teaching tasks demand advanced professional knowledge and judgment of a high order, while others require professional skills of a quite modest level. Other facets of classroom instruction appear largely technical in nature, while some are of an essentially routine clerical character. All contribute to the education of children if they are planned and coordinated by an experienced, professionally competent teacher. It has become increasingly apparent, however, that all cannot and should not be carried out by the same individual.

An increasing number of schools are departing from a monolithic view of teaching and instead are initiating staffing plans which utilize the talents of a broad spectrum of persons. For example, the Fountain Valley Schools in Huntington Beach, California, have developed a plan which groups six classrooms staffed by regular professionally prepared teachers into modules under the leadership of a coordinating teacher. A teacher aide assigned to each such ungraded module; college work-study students serving as noon duty aides; parent aides for library, clerical, and instructional materials preparation duties; curriculum center personnel; shared services of a teacher of the educationally handicapped to help classroom teachers adapt programs to children who do not fit the regular patterns of teaching and learning; access to specialists in vocal and instrumental music, school psychology, and nursing—all of these supplement the regular teaching staff and enrich the learning opportunities for every child.

Such a plan encourages difference among teachers rather than demanding narrow standardization. Each teacher can depend upon his colleagues for help in areas where their talents and interests go beyond his own. Rather than viewing teachers as standardized, interchangeable parts on a vast educational production line, this new instructional team approach emphasizes differences and seeks to blend such differences in a manner which exposes each student to a broader range of experience, interest, and talent.

Access to the assistance of aides trained to perform a variety of clerical and subprofessional duties frees the time of staff and coordinating teachers to plan with colleagues, counsel students, diagnose learning problems of individuals, and carry out a variety of other important professional tasks aimed at improving teaching and learning.

Another advantage to this new concept of staffing is that it recognizes and provides for variations in learning and teaching styles. In advocating the matching of teachers and pupils, Thelen observed:

> Everybody seems to realize that some pupils perform better with certain teachers than with others. . . . Surprisingly enough, although everyone recognizes that the interpersonal relationship between child and teacher is at the heart of the learning situation, most systems used for grouping children overlook this factor completely.[1]

The grouping of teachers into instructional teams within a school under the coordination of an experienced teacher-leader and with access to supporting paraprofessional help makes possible a blending of teacher personalities and teaching styles and can substantially enhance the likelihood of achieving a better "fit" of school programs to individual children.

Differentiated teacher roles and a support staff for the teacher help to break with the concept of the universal teacher which we have accepted for so many years. No teacher is equally good at everything. Each has strengths and weaknesses which should be taken into account, both in his training program and in his professional assignment. While it continues to be important to prepare teachers to cope with a wide scope of variations in students and in community settings, it is less than realistic to expect equal success with every teaching mode, with every child, and in all cultural settings. It is time that we pay more attention to the individual differences among teachers instead of acting as if the term had meaning only in relation to children. Teacher preparation programs should recognize, accept, and even aim for a range of difference in teaching style and special interests among prospective teachers and then should assist school systems in employing and assigning teaching personnel in effective complementary roles as members of instructional teams.

New concepts of the teacher have not only recognized variations among teachers in style, personality, and special interest, but have also noted important distinctions among the beginning teacher, the regular staff teacher, and the outstanding career teacher. Some school systems are making provision for beginning teachers to work in team relationships where they will have direct and regular access to consultation and help from experienced colleague teachers. Too often, promising beginning teachers are lost to the profession because of the discouragement resulting from being given the most difficult and demanding assignments with little or no provision for supervision and support.

---

[1] Herbert A. Thelen. "Matching Teachers and Pupils." *The Education Digest* 32(9): 10; May 1967. Reported from *NEA Journal* 55: 18-20; April 1967.

Some of these same school systems are keeping and using more effectively their outstanding career teachers by assigning them roles of responsible leadership in instructional teams. Given such opportunities to enlarge the impact of their professional knowledge and skill, many outstanding teachers are being retained in classroom relationships with children, rather than being shifted to administrative or central supervisory posts or lost to education in business or industrial assignments. With these new opportunities for instructional leadership come modifications in status, teaching load, and compensation.

One more variation in the utilization of personnel for teaching is worthy of mention—the employment of part-time teachers. Until recently most school administrators were disposed to view the use of part-time teachers as an emergency measure to which they resorted only when the shortage of trained full-time personnel left them no alternative. Today, however, the increasing need to teach children at a variety of levels and in a broad range of modes and contexts suggests the necessity for involvement of a larger group of adult personnel. In some cases the advanced interests of individual children in particular scientific or artistic areas may go far beyond the experience and knowledge of the regular teaching staff of a school. In other cases, particular remedial problems of one child or a small group of children may make imperative a concentrated block of attention by the regular teacher or some other properly trained professional.

From the pool of persons, principally women, who prepared for teaching and perhaps taught for a brief period before marriage and family responsibilities made a full-time assignment impossible, can come valuable instructional resources. Such individuals can provide not only new sources of enrichment to the experience and interest base of the staff, but can also facilitate a flexibility in the assignment of regular members of the instructional team that will help free their time for planning, counseling, evaluation efforts, and a host of other creative professional activities.

Supervisory Implications of Changing Teacher Roles

Much more might be said regarding new concepts of the teacher's role, but the purpose of this paper is to explore implications of these new conceptions for the role of the supervisor.

Assuming the wider acceptance of the concepts of differentiated roles and of a supporting staff for classroom teachers, what will these developments mean for the role of the supervisor?

A first and perhaps most obvious consequence is that some teachers will become supervisors, in function if not in name. Many experienced and outstanding teachers will work with new teachers, with aides and educational technicians, and with teams of other teachers, coordinating their efforts while retaining a relationship with children in the classroom. Some will assume responsibilities with teams of teacher colleagues and will work in a single school with a cluster of professionals and paraprofessionals. Such an arrangement will represent a departure from the common current conception of supervision, which tends to view the supervisor as a person who works with a cluster of schools rather than within one school and who has terminated all regular teaching responsibilities with children, except for an occasional demonstration lesson.

Such a development would seem to have special merit in reducing the distance between the supervisor and the teacher and in expanding the amount of time which could be given to a particular teacher or group of teachers. Attaching supervisory and consultant functions to a team leader or a coordinating teacher assigned to work with a small group of teachers in one school would seem to make these services much more readily available to teachers. Such help could be given not only at the strategic moments of need but could be planned on a concentrated or recurring schedule far more easily than is likely to be true where the supervisor must work out of a central office and assume responsibility for a number of schools.

A second implication for supervision growing out of the changing role of the teacher is the expanded importance of the teacher education dimension of the supervisor's role. All supervisors, whether working as coordinating teachers in the classroom or as system supervisors, will need to give greater attention to their role as teacher educators. The complexity of modern teaching, the differentiation of teacher roles, and the rapid educational changes accompanying significant social change all combine to make it clear that preservice education is merely an introduction rather than a culmination of the teacher's preparation. In-service education is of necessity more important than ever. Such programs will need to be structured more thoughtfully and administered more effectively than ever and will need to be linked with college preservice programs in a manner that will make both integral elements in a continuous, coherent program of teacher development.

We are likely to find that many supervisors will be appointed to adjunct professorships in area colleges or universities in order to facilitate a closer integration between what is taught at the pre-service and in-service education levels. Such efforts may be of special benefit in minimizing the number of instances where there is a serious gap between the image of teaching being communicated by the college and that provided by the school system.

With teachers working increasingly in group situations calling for many coordinating and managerial skills, the system supervisor will need to be able to direct or arrange for training experiences that will develop such skills among coordinating teachers and, indeed, among all teachers as they work with paraprofessionals. Thus a special facet of the teacher education role of the supervisor will be that associated with helping teachers to coordinate and manage the efforts of a team of persons.

The teacher education dimension of the supervisor's role will be important also in terms of training programs for teacher aides and educational technicians. Many facets of the work of these paraprofessionals will probably be best taught on the job by those with whom these support staff members will be working. It will undoubtedly be necessary, however, to provide these paraprofessionals with certain basic orientation experiences that will foster their understanding of the role of the school and some central concepts of teaching and learning.

We have been speaking about two broad types of supervisors: (a) those designated as coordinating teachers or team leaders of groups of teachers and supporting personnel, and (b) those who are assigned system-wide coordinating responsibilities. Within the latter group there is likely to emerge a number of specialties which relate to variations within teaching and teacher roles.

Changed Teacher Roles and Specialization in Supervision

One such supervisory specialty is the familiar one of subject matter. While their title is similar to that of the present subject supervisor, persons operating in this realm in the future are likely to be charged with much greater responsibility for establishing a link between scholars in the disciplines of knowledge and teachers at the elementary and secondary levels. An important objective of their work will be to foster among teachers a basic understanding of conceptual structures and broad principles and generalizations central to an assigned field of study, in order that these may become an organizing focus around which the teachers may plan and implement a program involving specific content, materials, and learning experiences.

Rather than personally assuming responsibility for assistance to teachers on matters concerning the specifics of content or the appropriateness of various instructional materials, system-wide supervisors would leave such functions to the coordinating teacher. This conception of role and division of function would obligate the subject supervisor to be much more of a scholar in a discipline or broad field, with scholarship defined in terms of understanding the fundamental ideas and modes of inquiry of that field rather than simply familiarity with a mass of peripheral detail.

A second kind of specialization which is likely to come about in supervision is that involving emphasis upon certain teacher roles. Teacher educators frequently speak of teachers' having a role to play in classroom counseling, evaluation, research, the diagnosis of learning problems, curriculum materials preparation, or community relations. If different teachers are to develop particular strengths in one or more of these areas, it would seem necessary that supervisory personnel develop their specialties accordingly in order to support and train classroom personnel to play such roles more effectively. Under such an approach some supervisors would be particularly experienced and knowledgeable in evaluation techniques and measures, others in the diagnosis of learning problems, still others in curriculum material preparation.

While knowledge of the applications of research methodologies and techniques to curricular and instructional problems would be one such specialty which might develop among supervisors, an increasing degree of sophistication in this field would seem to be essential for every system supervisor. As the approach to teaching and learning moves further from the single model didactic approach to an experimental one in which teachers are encouraged to adapt their methods, materials, and plans in light of their assessment of student needs and other relevant factors, it is clear that much greater emphasis will be placed upon an assessment of the impact of these variations. If teachers are to benefit from the experience of others, their modifications will need to be studied systematically and communicated in a language which has meaning throughout the profession. It seems clear that more teachers will look to supervisory personnel for assistance and guidance in planning and structuring studies aimed at the design of promising new approaches to teaching and learning, and in assessing the consequences of these departures.

A third kind of specialization needed among system supervisors will be that of emphasis upon media and methods of instruction broadly defined. These specialists will be expected to provide leadership in training personnel who wish to employ different approaches to teaching. For example, television instruction, programmed learning, the utilization of discussion groups, laboratory demonstrations, community surveys, and remedial and tutorial efforts all will be facilitated through the assistance of well-trained supervisory personnel who are able to extend teachers' insights into these varying approaches and their greater awareness of the circumstances in which each is most effectively employed.

It is likely that some supervisors will work essentially full time with teachers in the planning and production of television programs. Others will work with teachers and other educational personnel in planning and preparing program materials in a variety of subject areas. Still others will train teachers in the effective utilization of discussion, while some will help interested teachers to develop skill in individual remedial and tutorial roles with students who have specific learning problems.

Clearly, in addition to the need for supervisory personnel with the broadened range of specialties already suggested, the need will continue for general supervisors, directors, or coordinators of instruction assigned to work with groups of schools or school systems as a whole. One of the especially important problems in contemporary education is that of clarifying and maintaining an appropriate balance between curriculum decisions made at the national, regional, or system-wide levels and those which are most appropriately made at the individual school or classroom teacher level. A critical task of our schools of the future will be that of providing for a commitment on the part of every school to certain common educational objectives while encouraging the translation of these common objectives into specific applications which are relevant and meaningful to individual communities and learners. Our schools can afford neither to perpetuate a narrow parochialism resulting from the limited vision and experience of one school board or one teacher nor to indoctrinate a monolithic, single outlook that neglects the unique needs and potentialities of individuals and communities.

Some will view recent developments in the role of the teacher as threatening to the future status of the supervisor. If they are threatened by the obligation to reexamine their own role in light of changing teacher roles, many supervisors will indeed be challenged, for the new images of teachers and teaching which are presently emerging will demand new administrative and supervisory roles as well. It is precisely in this need to reexamine the role of the supervisor, however, that exciting possibilities of new directions and new contributions begin to take shape. The changing patterns of teaching and learning seem to call for no less supervision but rather for more effective supervision geared to these exciting developments.

Theme C: Career Development

Implications for Career Development

William H. Lucio

In the first of two papers dealing with Theme C, William H. Lucio discusses the implications of new role dimensions for the preparation and continuing professional development of supervisors. Faced with actions to discover needs to be filled rather than with filling needs already discovered, he believes that systematic application of techniques based on innovative planning is a necessity. He outlines a strategy for the professional development of supervisors based on a master regional-national program under association support.

THIS report outlines some of the predicted future conditions which possibly may affect the role of the supervisor, examines some aspects of career development which need clarification, and presents a strategy for providing for the continuing professional development of the supervisor.

Future Career Requirements

Proposals and plans for improving career development programs in education, as with any other profession, must be based on more than appraisals of present conditions—on more than merely correcting visible shortcomings. The influences that current and predicted changes in society will exert on career roles require logical and systematic examination and the initiation of a series of steps which, if taken, will lead from the present to a possible future state appropriate to real world requirements.

The development of career training programs congruent with conditions which have been postulated as likely to be in effect circa 1980 is no small task. In essence, we are faced with actions to discover needs to be filled rather than with filling needs already discovered.

Only a few general concepts concerning the dimensions of future requirements, and some of the implications for career development, can be touched upon here. Appropriate technologies for analyzing, describing, and deriving implications from the corpus of statements about likely innovations in the future are to be found in a number of sources and among various disciplines.[1]

In one such study concerned with the future, conducted by staff at the RAND Corporation, six panels of experts, utilizing the Delphi technique of computed consensus, provided projected views of the world of 1984, 2000, and 2100. This forecast of the world of the future by expert analysts provides a thought-provoking set of propositions applicable to planning personnel needs for the schools of the 1980's.

> If we abstract the most significant items from the forecasts of all six panels, the following picture emerges of the state of the world as of 1984. The population of the world will have increased by about 40 percent from its present size to 4.3 billion—that is, provided no third world war will have taken place before then. There is an 80 to 85 percent probability that it will not if present trends continue, but this probability can be raised to 95 percent by appropriate policy measures. To provide the increased quantities of food needed, agriculture will be aided by automation and by the availability of desalinated sea water. Effective fertility control will be practised, with the result that the birthrate will continue to drop.
>
> In the field of medicine, transplantation of natural organs and implantation of artificial (plastic and electronic) organs will be common practice. The use of personality-control drugs will be widespread and widely accepted. Sophisticated teaching machines will be in gen-

[1] Fritz Baade. *The Race to the Year 2000*. New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1962.

Arthur C. Clarke. *Profiles of the Future*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1960.

Bertrand de Jouvenel. *The Art of Conjecture*. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1967.

Theodore Gordon. *The Future*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1965.

Olaf Helmer. *Social Technology*. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1966.

eral use. Automated libraries which look up and reproduce relevant material will greatly aid research. World-wide communication will be enhanced by a universal satellite relay system and by automatic translating machines. Automation will span the gamut from many service operations to some types of decision-making at the management level. In space, a permanent lunar base will have been established. Manned Mars and Venus fly-bys will have been accomplished. Deep-space laboratories will be in operation. Propulsion by solid-core nuclear-reactor and ionic engines will be becoming available.[2]

Career roles for supervisors, as affected by these and many other conditions, will of necessity take on new dimensions in the world of 1980. Brickell has made some predictions, several of which are enumerated here.

The present role of teacher will gradually evolve into a cluster of roles encompassing such discrete functions as team leader, script writer, presenter of information, evaluator of pupil responses, and designer of supplementary pupil experiences. The new administrative and supervisory specialties will include position titles such as Specialist in Outside Developments, Supervisor of Professional Training, Director of Equipment Acquisition and Maintenance, Chief of Materials Production, Program Assessor, Coordinator of Temporary Personnel Assignments, Professional Librarian, and Travel Officer.

We can anticipate that an Assistant Superintendent for Development and Training will cap off the pyramid of such positions in the central office of the school system. We can also expect specialists in development and training to appear in principals' offices at the school building level. In some cases, newcomers will take over administrative routine to free the principals for development and training work, but in most cases the principal will continue as before, leaving the new functions to new specialists. I expect that the new role will be titled "Specialist in Development and Training" more often than it is titled "Assistant Principal."

We can expect, even by 1980, an enormous expansion in subprofessional or paraprofessional full-time and part-time workers. Some will be attached to teachers as general aides, while others will serve as instructional machine operators, playground supervisors, information room clerks, data assistants, equipment maintenance technicians, travel aides, and so on. Assistant teaching will become one of the great service occupations of our nation in the final quarter of this century. (We can anticipate junior college curricula emerging to prepare such people.)

There will, of course, be a matching expansion in the number

[2] Olaf Helmer, *ibid.*, p. 78.

of administrative officers at both system office and building office levels to recruit, allocate, train, compensate, supervise, and evaluate the growing army of education aides.[3]

These two abstracts, the first forecasting future conditions, and the second describing expanded career requirements, suggest that the so-called revolution in education is just beginning. In the coming decades we will experience greater changes than in the past ones—with ever-increasing acceleration to be anticipated. The computer still has to make its impact upon the curriculum and the technologies of teaching. Sharply increased federal activities in the education of the culturally different, activities in research, in vocational-technical education, and in the work of large education laboratories (both private and governmental) will produce an accelerating effect on educational development.[4] Further, if, as has been predicted, approximately 85 percent of the educational profession will be serving in metropolitan school districts in the next decade and a half, the degree and quite probably the kinds of supervisory specialization should be quite different from present requirements.

Programs for career development will need to be directed toward producing new kinds of specialists with reasonable knowledge and demonstrated skill in curriculum theory-practice, personnel management, organizational planning, educational research, and the governance of schools, to list but a few of the probable areas requiring new emphases. Professional associations, colleges, and universities, in collegial effort with school systems, will be required to utilize fully their resources in planning and executing differentiated career development programs. For this task, universities, schools, and professional associations must join in a unified effort, each utilizing its own particular resources, in order to provide a continuum for preservice and continuing career development programs.

What is suggested by these propositions is that professional development of supervisors also be embedded in a real world laboratory—what has been called "the inner core of schooling—where teachers, students, and what is to be learned all come together." [5]

---

[3] Henry M. Brickell. "Local Organization and Administration of Education." *Implications for Education of Prospective Changes in Society.* Denver, Colorado: Designing Education for the Future, January 1967. p. 227.

[4] John W. Loughary. *Man-Machine Systems in Education.* New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1966. Chapter 14, pp. 209-22, and Chapter 15, pp. 223-35.

University of California. *The University as a Major Influence in the State.* Proceedings of the University of California Twenty-Second All-University Faculty Conference, March 20-23, 1967. Berkeley, California: the University, 1967. pp. 43-51.

Means and Ends in Career Programs

If the sample predictions noted here are valid descriptions of future conditions which will determine in large measure the kind and quality of career training, what then are some of the implications for planning career development programs in supervision? Lincoln's classic statement might provide a clue: "If we could first know where we are and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it."

A primary requirement in designing a career development program is to determine the explicit purposes and the specific role performance required of those persons affected by proposed innovations and changing environments. Methods of training would be directly related to predicted behavioral outcomes, rather than our simply inferring or divining that some particular means, program, or set of actions leads automatically to appropriate performance. The danger of limited vision in evaluating the consequences of inappropriate methods has been recognized by Bixler in a provocative article subtitled, interestingly enough, "A Challenge to Professional Societies." Noting the willingness of the applied scientist to evaluate current practices of his profession, as exemplified by the average engineer who seemingly is much more willing to test the wisdom and the efficacy of his practices than is the teacher, Bixler asks:

> What responsibilities do we have to mankind to carry out studies of the effectiveness of our favorite, but largely untested, methods of surgery, psychotherapy, and teaching? . . . The most neglected ethical issue in life sciences research has been the failure to study the methods we employ in the application of our knowledge to the solution of mankind's problems of health, education, and welfare. . . . Not only are drugs, surgical techniques, and other medical procedures widely used without scientific evidence of their adequacy, but so are many psychological tests, personnel practices, social programs, and methods of teaching. . . .[6]

Bixler indicts those persons (practitioners, if you wish) who assume that their methods are sound without submitting them to careful examination and those who make no effort to test the consequences of their procedures. He states that, while the worst offenders appear to be in the mental health professions, where practitioners resort to questionable methods—such as using classical psychotherapies and diagnostic techniques which are useless and possibly harmful, refusing to do research with the ". . . flimsy excuse that what they are doing is so subtle that it cannot be studied by scientific means . . ." and ignoring or criticizing any attempts at research—another group of offenders can be found in the classroom. As he notes:

---

[5] John I. Goodlad. "The Educational Program to 1980 and Beyond." *Implications for Education of Prospective Changes in Society.* Denver, Colorado: Eight-State Project Office, 1362 Lincoln Street, January 1967. p. 60.

[6] Ray H. Bixler. "Ostracize Them! A Challenge to Professional Societies." *Saturday Review* 49 (27): 47-48; July 2, 1966. © 1966, Saturday Review, Inc.

> In no other area of the applied behavioral sciences is our knowledge so scanty and our position so intransigent as in the technology of teaching. Some, usually professors, hide behind the contention that teaching is an art and then consolidate their position by pointing out that any effort to investigate the efficacy of what they are doing and how they are doing it will be an infringement upon academic freedom. Others, usually school teachers, have produced a collection of platitudes and a pattern of practices which are supported by anecdotes and analogies.
>
> This resistance of applied life scientists to rigorous evaluation of their methods seems paradoxical in this modern scientific world. "Common sense" is the yardstick against which the excellence of teaching or testing is measured and, to make matters worse, when scientific evidence casts doubt upon the reliability of some established practice, the research is frequently rejected or ignored. . . .
>
> Many an applied life scientist is tragically out of date. He is not likely to be an omnivorous reader of professional journals, and, as a result, he is ill-prepared to replace his discredited techniques with newer skills. Since he often cannot understand the rationale behind recent contributions, he may reject them out of hand. This practitioner is no strange breed; he is simply the victim of a knowledge explosion. The biologist who rested his case on the Bible responded to Darwin in much the same way.
>
> There is a difference, of course. Little damage is done to the welfare of his fellowmen by a peddler of antiquated theory. He can be endured. But the practitioner in the life sciences who adopts a prescientific concept of evidence must be classified with the scientist who deceives his helpless subjects. He must be ostracized.[7]

The practitioner's dependence upon untested methods, as expressed in Bixler's critique, reflects, in part, a retreat from professional accountability and a lack of explicit knowledge about the relation between a practice (its effects on clients) and the relevance of these effects to defined purposes or outcomes. The lack of certainty about educational practice, resulting from the absence of clear-cut purpose, leads to dependence on serendipity as a way of change.

---

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 48.

If one of the most important sources of professional authority is the power to state relationships between some action, or method, and a stated outcome, it follows that conscious effort must be taken to create career development programs which take account of the relation between ends and means.

Implications of this thesis for supervisory roles elicit some further comments. Every position in the school carries with it an obligation to promote values and to apply knowledge and rational thought in making critical decisions. Supervision itself, in meeting this obligation, becomes a distributed function—a dimension of behavior in many positions—which holders of various positions discharge in different ways. At a general level, there is a common dimension in the expected role behavior of those who are supervisors regardless of their position in the school system, and this common dimension has three elements:

1. The determination of ends to be sought—to propose desirable ends or results to be attained;

2. The design of procedures for effecting the ends—to develop programs and procedures that promise the results desired; and

3. The assessment of results—to determine whether the desired and desirable results actually were obtained from the procedures followed.[8]

As has been suggested, some confusion exists between statements of procedures or activities and instructional objectives. This confusion has been reflected in many career development programs in which the focus is on some activity or some course and, therefore, less attention is given to ends—to changed behavior. One frequently notes proposals for career development projects with the stated objective of providing an internship program, or introducing sensitivity training, or utilizing some particular method of analyzing teacher behavior. Such proposals are frequently no more than a statement of faith in a method which, it is assumed, will accomplish some vaguely defined changes in behavior. When the precise relation of methods to purpose is not clear, we run the risk of evaluating behavior which may bear little relation to performance in a task. Organizational structures, teaching devices, programs, and the like are always means, never instructional ends.

---

[8] William H. Lucio and John D. McNeil. *Supervision: A Synthesis of Thought and Action.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969. (Revised Edition.)

An internship, for example, is a means or a plan that might bring results in terms of trainees who are thus better equipped, or result in changes in their behavior that would not occur as readily through a different organizational plan. However, it is the desired and sharply defined consequences for the participants that constitute instructional ends, not the activity itself. Some of the critical questions to ask of any activity or method to be employed in career development are the following:

1. What are learners expected to do as a result of the innovation?
2. When confronted with what class of situations will learners respond differently than they now do?
3. How will the response be evidenced?

A Strategy for Career Development

The issues raised in this paper have pointed up the challenge for the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development to give considerable attention toward helping develop programs clearly related to changing conditions.

One suggested way to meet this need is presented in the following outline of a strategy for professional career development. The plan is divided into two phases.

Phase I. CONSTITUTION OF A NATIONAL BOARD OF ASCD VISITORS

The board would be composed of institutional representatives, practicing supervisors, and professionals from fields appropriate to particular programs under study. Its general purpose would be to serve as a regional program development task force to work on-site with training institutions and affiliated school districts. This task force would obtain descriptions of the performance measures used to certify supervisors and, when appropriate, would help formulate performance measures relevant to stated objectives. Institutions would be invited to draw up measures for determining "the competency of individuals who can perform the behaviors requisite to achieving the objectives of the program of training." [9]

In this formative phase, concerned with evaluation to improve programs while they are still fluid, the dialogue among the Boards of Visitors, institutions, and schools would be focused primarily on the ends of career training; that is, on the results. The means, such as particular sequences of courses, areas of subject matter, and similar considerations, would receive less attention than the goals of the program and the measures of performance. Emphasis would be upon precise explication of skills and knowledge appropriate to the supervisory roles which institutions claim to develop. Stress would also be placed upon the ways in which individuals are expected to demonstrate that they can perform with regard to role objectives. Traditional academic sequences with rigidly prescribed units of work or specific prescriptions of courses would be deemphasized.

We cannot stipulate all the prerequisites for individuals; preset notions of what constitutes the one best way to achieve proficiency should be avoided in this contingent world. (See, for example, the analysis by Knarr and others regarding the academic preparation of American Psychological Association award winners.[10])

In planning career development programs, let us look less at procedures, activities, or requirements of X numbers of units in some particular field, and focus more on the role for which we train, the measures of performance in that role, and those learning contacts that will lead to competent performance. Few of us would fly with any sense of security on commercial airlines if we did not believe that airplane pilots were initially selected on the basis of performance and continuously appraised throughout their careers (by means of simulated trainers, flight checks, and other performance appraisals). As a passenger in an airplane, I have limited interest in whether or not the pilot has taken courses in dial and table reading, human relations, or solid state physics, however important I perceive knowledge in these areas to be. The important point is: Can he fly that machine?

Guidelines to assist in the initial operation of Phase I could be planned, appropriate to general or particular situations. For example, classes or categories of supervisory learning contacts for specific career targets, as described by the institution in consultation with the Board of Visitors, might include areas relating to: (a) teachers, (b) pupils, (c) person-to-person behavior, (d) curriculum materials, and/or (e) course sequences. These learning requirements would be matched by a set of responses or measures of performance by which trainees demonstrate competence in: (a) identifying the problem, (b) proposing solutions to the problem, and (c) demonstrating performance in solving the problem in an actual setting.

---

[9] Statement by the ASCD Commission on Problems of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers.

[10] Frederick A. Knarr, Shirley Goodman, and Kathrine Cummings. "Undergraduate Majors of APA Award Winners." *American Psychologist* 22 (4): 319; April 1967.

Phase II. Establishment of a National ASCD Commission on Career Programs

The Commission would serve: (a) as a research and development agency for the continued study of supervisory training programs at a national level, and (b) as a review and recommending agency for regional institutional programs. The research and development function would be accomplished through studies of current and predicted requirements for career training, investigations of critical issues, and the dissemination of findings. In its reviewing and summative evaluation function, the Commission would appraise evidence of the effectiveness of programs developed by participating institutions and the Board of Visitors. The Commission would also make recommendations for approval or changes in the task performance packages. Broad evaluative questions might be applied:

Are the goals comprehensive and relevant to the described roles of supervisors?

Are objectives stated or implied?

Are the levels of required performance relevant to the stated objectives?

Are there observable responses called for on the part of trainees?

Are there indicators of what constitutes adequate response?

Eventually the Commission would establish criteria for approval of career programs, perhaps relating its criteria of professional certification to base line standards of national accreditation association(s). Several levels of approval (lifelong career follow-up) could be employed, for instance:

1. Periodically publish a list of "Recommended Career Development Programs" by certifying institution and cooperating school district.

2. Authorize institutional issuance of a Certificate in Supervision or a Diplomate in Supervision, or authorize certification of permanent placement records.

3. Require that certificates be renewed periodically by a process of Commission and institutional examination.

4. Develop explicit criteria for revocation procedures and eventually establish a Board of Review.

In developing the renewal procedure, critical content and performance measures for the examinations could be set forth by the Commission. Selected measures would be based on particular new learning requirements, new social demands, or different performance levels. To cite a not-too-farfetched example: if drugs were to become available, the administration of which could radically change the learning behavior of handicapped pupils, and if special classes of supervisors must have knowledge of such drugs and their effects on children in order to perform competently, then the renewal examination would include these data as one of its elements.

In conclusion, the career development strategy suggested here is an attempt to take a long view in determining the direction and role of supervision. Credence is lent to this approach by the results obtained by other professional groups which have taken action toward professional accountability. By exploratory analyses of specific career development strategies, and by examination of their validity in terms of objectives, hypotheses would be generated vis-à-vis effective ways of training. Further, by diagnosing programs of training from information or feedback on how populations of supervisors behave, we would obtain data helpful in adjusting training programs in accordance with changed requirements.

The reproducibility of training sequences is also a possibility; that is, studies of supervisory roles and the conditions which make for effective performance in these roles could result eventually in the preparation of differentiated career development packages. The packages, perhaps programmed in nature and designed for particular career targets, could be tested in varied situations.

It is not necessary to elaborate on the possible effects which would result from a regional-national program of career development under Association support. Yet it is reasonable to forecast that benefits would accrue to both small and large institutions and their satellite schools. Institutions and staff personnel would have the kinds of professional knowledge and institutional support to enable them to examine more systematically, and on a continuing basis, the consequences of strategies employed for career development.

Finally, the issues raised in this symposium regarding the career development of supervisors suggest the following questions:

1. Faced with a variety of predicted changes in society affecting the purposes of education, will our basic professional values and actions revolve around the *ideal* of effective education for children and youth and go beyond rationalizing our actions or becoming preoccupied with pursuing only our own personal welfare?

2. Will we increasingly devote our professional energies to the task of contributing to the growth of knowledge rather than be content merely to draw upon such knowledge?

3. As a professional group, will we deliberately develop a professional tradition of continued lifelong education which assumes accountability for self-supervision, or will we settle for developing dated, or more precisely, outdated professional workers?

Theme C: Career Development

The Supervisor and His Professional Identity

Jack R. Frymier

Caught up in the tenor of the times in which students, teachers, administrators, board members, and the general public are choosing up sides and squaring off for conflict, is it possible to make the progress and improvement all educators hope for? Jack R. Frymier's presentation deals with requirements for achieving professional identity, the characteristics of a profession, the place of supervisors and curriculum workers in the power structure of education, and how their voices can be heard on matters on which they are uniquely qualified to speak.

TIMES change. We live in an era in which men and ideas and things are being transformed and are evolving anew at a phenomenal pace. Economically these are boom times, bordering on inflation. Socially these are changing times, bordering on rebellion. Morally these are different times which are bordering on revolution. Politically these are disturbing times, bordering on deceit and chaos. And these forces all impinge upon the educational enterprise in a persistent, pervasive way. More children, more knowledge, more pressures—all come to rest on the schoolman's shoulders at one time.

This changing nature of our own and other societies is forcing those of us who spend our lives in education to examine carefully and critically everything that goes on in school. We are caught up in the tenor of the times.

The Climate and Force of Change

However, we are caught up in these developments at the same time that we face an internal conflict within education and another external conflict with the state. There is a polarization of thought and action. Students, teachers, administrators, board members, and the general public are choosing up sides and squaring off for conflict. Such confrontations have occurred at dozens of colleges and in scores of school districts throughout the nation. Riots, teachers' strikes, student protests, sit-ins, arrests, name-calling, diatribes in print—all display a quality and character of activity which have never been present in American education before. Some persons are delighted. Others deplore almost everything which has occurred. Many are perplexed and wonder what they ought to do.

In addition to the disagreements among those who are participants within the educational complex, those who are involved in education often find themselves at serious odds with the political forces and agencies of the particular state in which they happen to reside. The states are actually struggling for survival, and those who are a part of the educational endeavor find themselves deeply involved in the states' efforts to survive.

Theoretically, the state as a governmental unit in the United States is obsolete. Two levels of government—national and regional—would probably be more conducive to effective government. But we have national, state, county, and municipal governmental units, and sometimes more. Further, most of these existing subunits do not possess the physical, economic, and cultural characteristics essential to make them viable and responsive political entities.

Caught up in what seems to be a struggle with the national government, state governments have moved vigorously in recent years to revitalize their efforts to maintain the integrity of the state as a political unit. Many of these efforts, probably emanating from the regular conference of governors, have directly or indirectly affected education: boards of regents to control higher education within the state; centralized purchasing; uniform accounting procedures; legislature-mandated curricula; and state-wide testing programs. At least one state has even considered abolishing local boards of education and transferring all authority to the state level.

Education has always been a function of the state government. Anything and everything which goes on within a local school district, in fact, occurs because it is either required or permitted by the state.[1] Even so, most of the basic decisions have traditionally occurred at the local level. Although this has sometimes been described as the "myth of local control," the fact is that recent events have tended to shift more and more direct control from the local level to the state. And as local districts become less able to meet the demands of teachers and others, there probably will be a shift to statewide professional negotiations which will be comparable to industry-wide bargaining, strengthening the power of the state still more. This is the milieu in which we find ourselves today.

It was almost half a century ago, in 1920, I believe, that H. G. Wells made his famous statement that "human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe."[2] That statement, written at the end of the First World War, is at least a thousand times as true today as it was then. Everybody, including those of us who work in it, knows that education has to be the way to solve the tough, real problems of our world. But this means we have to change. The old approaches and the old materials are simply not enough to meet the tough problems of today. We recognize that the pervasive forces—more people, more knowledge, changing social relationships, riots in the cities, the ever-present threat of thermonuclear war—call for dramatic, powerful changes in the institution we call "school."

And so we have tried to change. The word "change" in education is almost a cliché now, but we have really tried to change.[3] I think of most of these change efforts as *hypotheses* for change. They are hypotheses because almost never do we try out anything in the laboratory before we adopt it in education. We actually have no laboratories where we can test the new method or the new content, for example. Therefore, we hypothesize *on the job*, so to speak, that if we introduce this innovation or that modification, then somehow or other we will be able to make a significant difference in the lives and minds of those we teach. Yet we never actually know for certain. Until we have used the new approaches in a regular situation over a period of time, we are not able to know whether or not the change is for the better, thus the concept of *hypotheses* for change.

---

[1] Robert L. Drury and Kenneth C. Ray. *Essentials of School Law*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967. p. 7.

[2] H. G. Wells. *The New and Revised Outline of History*. Garden City: Garden City Publishing Co., 1920 and 1931. p. 1169.

[3] Jack R. Frymier. *Fostering Educational Change*. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., Inc. 1969.

Some of these hypotheses for change have revolved around modifications of the content with which we work, and I think of these as *content hypotheses for change.* PSSC physics, BSCS biology, SMSG mathematics, structural linguistics, generative grammar—these are all illustrations of basic changes in the nature of the subject matter which we use in schools. We have reorganized the fundamental ideas, rearranged the sequence, built it upon a different kind of learning theory, tightened up the logic, and cleaned up the language in the hope that by improving the nature of *what* we teach we will be able to help young people learn more, better, faster, retain it longer, and forget less than if we utilized the old content. I think of these changes as content hypotheses for change.

We have another series of change efforts that I think of as *organizational hypotheses for change.* Basically these involve modifications of the time, space, resource, personnel, and facility relationships: nongraded schools, team teaching, and modular scheduling, for example. These changes presume variations in the organizational components of education.

Many changes have taken place in the area of methods, and these might be called *methodological hypotheses for change:* language laboratories, computer-assisted instruction, educational television, and programmed materials, for instance—all changes in our approach and our methodology to help young people learn.

We also have had what might be called *research hypotheses for change.* We are investing our best talent, our energy, and our financial resources into studying the phenomena that are inherent in education, hoping to get some kind of breakthrough in our understanding of what education is all about. The efforts are aimed at describing the reality of the teacher-pupil relationship, or what learning really is, or motivation, in the hope that if we can empirically comprehend what education is all about, then maybe we will be able to generate a dramatic breakthrough.

There are other kinds of hypotheses for change that have been advanced in recent years. The reader can use his own rubrics, but the important point is that, as a profession, we have been cognizant of the need for change and we have tried mightily to change. We recognize the forces that insist we do things differently and better than we have in the past, and we have sincerely attempted to bring about improvement by fostering change.

Are we making the progress and improvement we all hope for? Are these changes resulting in the kinds of accomplishments which were intended when we advanced the various hypotheses for change? Any objective answer to such questions as these suggests that youngsters today do read better, write better, compute better, and know more mathematics, science, and social studies than students did two or three decades ago. Yet the differences are generally very slight: one-tenth of a grade level, two-tenths of a grade level, or three- or four-tenths of a grade level at most. We are definitely making progress, but the pace is unbelievably slow. We are just inching along in our efforts to attack ignorance. It has only been in the past 15 years that we have even gotten the holding power of the school to about the 50 percent mark. At the present dropout rate, almost one-third of the young people who enter first grade can be expected to quit school before twelfth-grade graduation. They quit because they hate it, and they hate it with a passion, and they would not go back if we attempted to drive them with a club. Such negative motivations can hardly be interpreted as a sign of effectiveness on our part.

There are other indications that we are not doing as well as we all hope for. It is true that the holding power of the school has increased steadily for almost a century, and it is also true that young people are more knowledgeable and skillful in many academic ways than students were in yesteryear. Yet if one asks, "Are we keeping up with the tremendous pace of the times?" then an objective answer on the basis of good data suggests "probably not."

Why is this so? How does one explain the fact that people who are dedicated to education and committed to change, who work very hard, and who have tried to be creative and ingenious in a variety of ways, have not been able to bring off the kinds of changes which produce the improvements that we know absolutely have to come?

I think there are a number of explanations. One, we tend to ask the wrong questions. We ask what I would call a *frequency question,* for example. How many students are involved in PSSC physics or Initial Teaching Alphabet? How many schools use language laboratories? How many teachers are participating in team teaching situations? If you ask a frequency question, then you can get only a frequency answer. There is no other possibility.

For example, when the school term opened this fall, more than half the schools in America that teach high school physics used the PSSC physics program. There was no such thing as PSSC physics 10 or 12 years ago, but since the inception of the program in the late 1950's we have moved from a point where no student in America was involved in PSSC physics to a point where more than half the students in the country who study physics study the PSSC program. And we assume that this must be progress.

During that same period of time, however, the proportional enrollment of students in physics in American high schools decreased almost 20 percent.[4] Now the time may come when all of the schools teach PSSC physics and none of the pupils take it so that we will be doing a perfect job! If you ask "How many schools are involved?" "How many teachers use a particular program?" or "How many students participate?" those are the wrong questions. I personally believe that the PSSC program is probably a good program, but I also know that if you ask how many schools are using it, implicit in that question is the assumption that it must be good if it is widespread. We dare justifying nothing on the basis of its existence. If we did that, we would have to justify crime and prostitution and disease. Stated simply, the frequency question is the wrong question to pose.

We also ask *efficiency questions* and *legal questions*, and these, too, are the wrong questions. If you ask an economic question, you can get only an economic answer. If you ask a legal question, you can get only a legal answer. It really does not make any difference how widespread a program is or how limited, or how much it costs or how little. Those are the wrong questions.

The basic question is, *Does the program make a significant difference in the lives and minds of those we teach?* We have to ask what I would call the *effectiveness question.* Does it help young people to learn? We sometimes have trouble sorting out the effectiveness question from the frequency question, the legal question, the efficiency question, or the other kinds of questions with which we are continuously confronted.

Another reason we have not made the kind of progress we all know we must make is that we have tended to manipulate the wrong variables. Any person who reads the research regularly knows that we manipulate what I would call the "external" variables. We try to change all of the things *out there:* class size, color of the blackboard, criteria for grouping students, size of the print, and the like. Anybody who reads the research or who has thought about the problem for even a minute knows that those are *not* the crucial variables.

For example, we have had, during the past 50 years, almost a thousand pieces of research relative to grouping youngsters according to their ability for instructional purposes. About five percent of those studies suggest that students learn more when they are grouped that way; about five percent of the studies suggest that students learn less; about 90 percent indicate "no significant difference." It seems to make good logical sense to presume that if we do not group youngsters together on the basis of their ability, then "the bright will be held back by the slow." The only trouble with that *logical* argument is that it does not seem to fit the *psychological* or *sociological* factors which make a difference in learning.

---

[4] John Walsh. "Curriculum Reform." *Science* 144: 642-46; May 8, 1964. See also: Robert C. Nichols. "Career Decisions of Very Able Students." *Science* 144: 1315-19; June 12, 1964.

Schramm [5] reviewed almost 400 pieces of research on the effectiveness of educational television. About 20 percent of the studies indicate that students learn more, about 15 percent indicate they learn less, and about 65 percent indicate "no significant difference."

That seems to be the pattern. "Darned if we do and darned if we don't!" The fact is, it does not seem to make much difference when we work to change the variables *out there*. Everybody knows that the crucial variable in education is the human one. If we want to improve education, we have to improve ourselves. We have to find a way to lift ourselves by our bootstraps, so to speak. We have to improve *our* concepts, *our* understandings, *our* skills, *our* attitudes, *our* techniques, and *our* ways of working. The thing that makes a difference is *us*, and we have to find a way to use ourselves powerfully and creatively to help young people learn.

Characteristics of a Profession

One of the reasons we have not made the kind of progress we all know is essential is that we have asked the wrong questions. We also have manipulated the wrong variables. We have probably operated, too, on the basis of some wrong assumptions. What we need to do right now, in my opinion, is advance a different kind of hypothesis for change. I believe we ought to consider the possibility of becoming truly professional in education and in supervision.

The word "professional" has been talked about for a long time in the field of education, but I am not at all certain that we really know what the word means. As a group, we most assuredly do not know how to behave in *truly* professional ways.

[5] Wilbur Schramm. "Learning from Instructional Television." *Review of Educational Research* 32: 156-67; April 1962.

One of the reasons we have difficulty with the word "professional" is that the dictionary definition says two things, and these are almost antithetical. One definition states that a professional is a person who engages in an activity for financial remuneration that other people engage in for recreation or for fun. So we have professional baseball players, dancers, and jugglers, for example. The logic is that if you get paid for it, you are professional. If we carry that logic further, it is not hard to come to the conclusion that if you get paid more, you are even more professional.

One of the other definitions of a professional is that he is a person who helps other people. It is almost altruism in its purest form.

Perhaps we should attempt to use the word in the best sense of both meanings. For instance many people—such as Sunday school teachers and scoutmasters—work with children or others in a teaching or helping role, but not all of these people get paid for what they do. When a person gets paid for being a teacher or supervisor, however, there is a different kind of obligation and a different kind of responsibility.

The concept of professionalism is an ancient one. The Code of Hammurabi, for example, which was written about 2500 years before the birth of Christ, set forth certain stipulations for the behavior of physicians of that day even though this was basically a legal code. Physicians, whom most of us recognize as being truly professional, have had about 4000 years of experience working toward truly professional status. Yet physicians have achieved that status only during the present century. Striped barber poles, for example, are reminders that barbers used to perform surgery, too, and that practice prevailed until fairly recent times. Other groups—lawyers, social workers, architects—have achieved truly professional status only in this century, too.

I believe it is important for us to recognize this fact of time, because it gives us the promise of possibility and hope. It is possible to attain truly professional status, in my opinion, and I believe it is imperative that we make definite strides in that direction. I believe also that we must work to become truly professional, not because it will make us more money—although it will—and not because it will raise our prestige level in the eyes of others—although it will do that, too—but because we have to become professional in order to be effective.

Being professional is the only way we can guarantee providing the highest quality service to those we seek to help. I want to explore the concept of "professionalism," because I believe the concept holds real promise as a way of enabling us to unleash our own humanness and to be more effective in the way we work with other people.

Any person or any group which is truly professional is characterized in six different ways. Those persons and those groups which are truly professional are characterized in each and every one of these six ways; not in some of them, not in most of them, but in each and every way. These characteristics can be viewed as criteria, therefore, and when we ask ourselves "Are we truly professional?" according to these criteria, then we have a way of getting an answer.[6]

The first, and probably the most important, characteristic of any persons or any group members who are truly professional is that *they provide an essential service for other people.* They are helpers in the best sense of the term. There is an interesting thing about the nature of the service provided by a truly professional person, and it is this: the service is imperative. Other people cannot get along without it. When my appendix becomes inflamed, for example, I absolutely have to have some help. I cannot take care of that problem by myself. Likewise, if I decide to buy a piece of property and do not know whether the title is clear, I have to have some assistance. I cannot solve that problem by myself. A truly professional person is continuously engaged in the business of providing essential service to his fellow man.

The second characteristic of any persons or any group members who are truly professional is that *they have a methodology which is unique and peculiar to that professional group.* That which distinguishes an engineer from a mathematician, for example, is not how much mathematics either one of them knows. They are both very knowledgeable about the content of mathematics. Yet we do not let mathematicians build rachets, bridges, or roads, because they do not have those skills, those techniques, those specific ways of behaving which are unique and peculiar to that group of people we call engineers. In the very same way, that which distinguishes a surgeon from a person who has a Ph.D. in physiology is not how much physiology either one of them knows. They are both very knowledgeable about the way the human organism is put together and how it functions. But I do not want any physiologist operating on me. He has not acquired those specific methods and techniques which belong to that group of people we call surgeons.

---

[6] For an interesting discussion of the concept of "Professionalism" see: Mark Abrahamson. *The Professional in the Organization.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1967.

Any group which is truly professional has a highly developed methodology, and it is the responsibility of professional schools to teach that methodology, because it can be taught and it can be learned. Nobody is born knowing how to tie a suture, argue a case in court, or check an abstract. Such skills are not transmitted genetically; they must be learned. The second characteristic of any professional group is that its members have a methodology all their own.

The third characteristic of any persons or any group members who are truly professional is that *they build their practice upon the best that men know—research.* A physician is denied the right to belong to the Church of Christ Scientist, for example, because the Christian Science Church advocates a method of healing which is not empirically verifiable: it cannot be tested in the laboratories. The truly professional people base their activities upon the best scientific data that is available at the moment.

The fourth characteristic of any persons or any group members who are truly professional is that *they make judgments and decisions which affect the lives and well-being of those they serve.* Yet there is an interesting thing about the nature of the judgments of the professional person, and it is this: almost never do those who are affected by the decision know whether the judgment is correct or not. Suppose, for example, that I go to my physician for an annual check-up. He examines me carefully and runs all kinds of tests. For purposes of illustration, let us suppose that he finds that I have some kind of blood infection. He might then tell me to take certain pills and come back regularly for a check to see how I am progressing. Now suppose that I take the pills and keep returning to his office regularly. Then let us suppose that I get well. I do not know that I am well; I did not know that I was sick in the first place. Yet suppose that I am actually completely recovered, but suppose also that he says to himself: "I make five dollars every visit, and a little extra on the side for the pills," so suppose he says to me, "This infection is not quite cleared up yet, so you had better keep coming in to the office and let me take a regular look at you." If he does that, obviously he would be taking advantage of me.

That is characteristic of any truly professional person's role; he always has the opportunity to take advantage of the person he is supposedly helping. The opportunity for exploitation is inherent in any truly professional person's role. It comes about by virtue of the fact that he has extensive training and experience in the area, and he is simply more knowledgeable. Any truly professional person always relates to those he serves in such a way that, if he wants to, he can take advantage of them and serve his purposes rather than theirs. This opportunity to exploit comes about because he is continuously engaged in the business of making decisions which affect other people, and the other people do not really know whether those decisions are correct or not.

Because of the possibility for exploitation which is inherent in any truly professional person's regular activities, those groups which are truly professional are characterized in a fifth way. *They have a code of ethics.* This code is a visible, articulate, typically general statement of principles which gives obviousness to the existence of something which clarifies ethical from unethical behavior. The purpose of a code of ethics is to give direction and guidance to those persons who want to function in truly professional, truly ethical, truly effective ways. Such a code is important because it helps the professional to be more effective by enabling him to provide the highest quality service that he can. The existence of an ethical code is the fifth characteristic of any truly professional group.

The sixth characteristic is that *those groups which are truly professional use the power of the professional organization to impose a discipline upon their membership, to insist that every member of the group adhere to the ethical way.* That, indeed, is the ultimate purpose of professional organizations: to guarantee that every member of the group functions in the most ethical, the most effective, the most professional manner known. Professional organizations are instrumentalities to assure the provision of the highest quality of service, and those groups which are truly professional use the power of the organization to require compliance from their peers according to an ethical code.

Professional Criteria and Supervisory Behavior

Is education truly professional? Are supervisors and those who work with teachers in curriculum development truly professional? Are our organizations and our operations characterized in these six ways? If we go down the list of characteristics and convert each one to a criterion, the result looks something like the following:

1. Do supervisors provide an essential service for the teachers and others with whom they work? The answer is clearly, "Yes." Teachers want and need experienced help in selecting materials, planning instructional activities, and the like. They absolutely must have such help. They cannot accomplish their own tasks in a changing educational world without the necessary assistance which only competent supervisors can provide.

2. Do supervisors have a methodology which is unique and peculiar to that professional group? The answer here is, "Probably yes." There are techniques and skills which supervisors have typically employed, but these techniques and skills are not always unique to that group nor are they always highly refined and adequately developed. Sometimes they have been borrowed directly from other groups, but more often than not they have been adopted on the basis of tradition or expediency or because they "seemed to work" for someone else under similar circumstances. Yet there is a kind of nucleus of supervisory skills.

3. Do supervisors have a research base upon which they can build their practice? "Yes and no." There is an extensive research base regarding learning and teacher behavior, for example, which is obviously important in supervision. Yet we know very little in an empirical way about which supervisory techniques or which in-service programs are most effective. We know very little about how to fit supervisory approaches to the individual teacher's needs. Part of the problem comes from the fact that we have very few conceptualizations which might be described as "supervision theory." Without carefully conceived theory we may never generate the kind of research we need for supervision.

4. Do supervisors make decisions which affect those they seek to help, and is it true that those who are affected do not know whether those decisions are right or not? The answer to that is obviously, "Yes," and it needs no elaboration at all.

5. Is there a statement of ethical principles to guide the thought and action of supervisors? "Yes," if you accept the *Code of Ethics for the Education Profession,*[7] but "No," if you presume that a specific code should apply to the supervisory group specifically. In my opinion, the existing code is probably an adequate base from which to start. It is not as strong or as clear in its statement as is

---

[7] National Education Association. *Code of Ethics for the Education Profession.* Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1952.

the statement of the *Principles of Medical Ethics*,[8] for example, but the main difficulties are probably less within the code itself than within the way we use the code.

6. Do supervisors use the power of the professional organization to impose a discipline upon themselves which guarantees that every member of the group functions in the most effective, the most ethical, the most professional manner known? "Absolutely not." On this objective we fall far short of the theoretical goal. Professional organizations such as ASCD do serve a very effective role in communicating thought among the membership, and that is certainly an important aspect of group control. Conferences and publications are clearly efforts on the part of the organization to improve the quality of behavior of practitioners. In the final analysis, however, using the power of the organization to influence the members of the group involves *including* some persons and *excluding* others. I generally think of this process as "drawing a circle." [9] This process includes attracting inside the professional circle those persons whose training and behavior contribute directly to the attainment of the professional objectives. Those persons who behave otherwise must be denied admission to or actually ejected from the group. They must be kept out or thrown out, in other words, and this dual process of inclusion-exclusion can be accomplished by the organization only if the group is to be truly professional. When such propositions were advanced by Gordon Mackenzie several years ago, the ideas apparently were very frightening to some persons in the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Actually, educators traditionally have not thought seriously about the possibilities as well as the problems involved in becoming truly professional. In our own field, of course, we have not yet found a way to resolve the problem of who should be a supervisor and who should not be. The professional identity of the supervisor today is still a perplexing problem.

All of this discussion of professionalism would be an interesting academic question were it not for the fact that right now we are in a tremendous turmoil in American education. The past six months have given witness to activities and behavior on the part of people in education which were almost undreamed of by most persons within the profession even a year ago.

---

[8] American Medical Association. *Opinions and Reports of the Judicial Council.* Chicago: American Medical Association, December 1960. 85 pp.

[9] Jack R. Frymier. *The Nature of Educational Method.* Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., Inc., 1965. Chapter 10.

Professional Models for Supervision

I believe we stand at a fork in the road. There seem to be three different directions in which we can go. One, we can move straight ahead in the same direction as we have in the past, and I would call this the acceptance or adoption of the *legal model.* Or, we might adopt the *labor model.* Finally, we could adopt the *professional model.* These models are not the same.

I have attempted to outline what I think is the appropriate step. It is obvious from my statement that I believe we ought to move in the direction of the professional model. Yet the professional model is different from either of the other two, and I want to direct attention to these differences.

We tend to be prisoners of our past experience. Our temptation is to adopt (or perhaps it would be more appropriate to say "continue") the legal model. Education and supervision have a legal base. Given the polarization of thought that is apparent in education today, and the drifting apart into two camps, the realities of the times tend to force us to come to grips with the question: "Should we go with the teachers, or should we go with the administration and the board?" Nobody in supervision wants to make that choice, yet the situation seems to force us in one direction or the other.

Our basic inclination, then, because of our past experience, is to adopt the legal model. For years we have talked about our role as "line" or "staff." This is nonsense. We know enough about perceptual psychology to know that from the teacher's point of view everyone in supervision is seen as "in the line." Everyone is perceived as in the administrative camp, and the administrative camp is the legal model, as I have outlined it here. Talking about whether we are "line" or "staff" is an interesting academic question within the supervisory group, but outside of that group it is not even a question. Supervisors are simply perceived as part of the legal authority system and part of the administrative group.

The question is, "Do we want to accept that model?" Do we want to maintain that *legal* posture? All over the country there are great forces acting upon people in supervision, pulling them toward the labor model or the professional model but away from the legal model. Bishop[10] states this issue precisely, and Leles[11] outlines the tendencies in an empirical way after a careful analysis of hundreds of incidents of "unprofessional" behavior in a midwestern state.

Some teacher groups are assuming responsibility for their own supervision. They are either checking or approving credentials of people who are hired as supervisors, or are in fact assuming primary if not complete responsibility for in-service education programs for the members of their group. And they also are paying the bill: hiring the consultants, providing the services, assuming full responsibility for upgrading the quality of people in their group.

As the polarization develops, however, there is a great tendency for many of us to lean back against the legal model. Confronted with unrest among the teachers, many administrators and board members are saying, "They cannot do that. It is against the law." The basic response of many of the school board members, especially, is to say: "Let's strengthen the law. Let's get tough with these teachers in legal ways."

I submit that that approach simply will not work. Although the legal model is our tradition and our experience, and though there are great forces at work at this moment to extend and strengthen the legal model, I personally do not believe that it is either an appropriate or an effective functioning model. It works and it works fairly well, but it is simply inadequate to solve the complex problems of the day.

I realize that most people in supervision probably will disagree with me, but I personally believe that people in supervision need to find a way to cast their lot directly with the teacher group. That is a very disturbing choice to many people, but if I look to other professional groups I am immediately conscious of the fact that such groups assume responsibility for their own supervision.

Every county medical society, for instance, has a Grievance Committee which considers complaints registered against physicians by persons in the community. Furthermore, every hospital also has a Tissues Committee and a Utilization Committee. The Tissues Committee consists of surgeons in that particular hospital who meet regularly as a group and study the pathologist's reports regarding removed tissue. In this way surgeons check on their fellow surgeons to determine whether each member of their group is making appropriate diagnoses or employing appropriate surgical procedures. This is supervision of physicians by physicians on the basis of empirical-clinical data. Utilization committees operate in every hospital, and they attempt to see how physicians use the facilities and resources of the hospital: How frequently does the physician visit his patients? What kind of records does he keep? How adequately does he supervise the nurses and other people who are involved? What kind of therapy does he prescribe? Again, this is supervision of physicians by physicians.

---

[10] Leslee J. Bishop. *Collective Negotiation in Curriculum and Instruction: Questions and Concerns.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1967. p. 8.

[11] Sam Leles. "Evolving a Theory of Effectiveness in Education." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation. The Ohio State University, Columbus, 1967.

The same thing is true in engineering and architecture and law. In many states the bar association is a legal extension of the supreme court of that particular state, thus it is a kind of "legal" model, but attorneys exercise influence over their fellow attorneys by means of a series of procedures which employ peer judgment and professional organization control.

The legal, labor, and professional models differ in at least two crucial ways: their source of authority and their motivational base.

The legal model derives its authority from the constitution or the statutes of the state. The labor model derives its authority from the combined power of the group to wield influence through such activities as a strike. The professional model derives its authority from the competence and expertise of the members of the group.

The basic motivation behind the legal model is to serve the people of the state. The motivation underlying the labor model is best described in the phrase, "What's in it for me?" The motivation behind the professional model is to provide the highest quality service to other persons—in this case, students.

The president of the New York City teachers union reportedly said recently [12] that, "Teachers have a right to be as selfish as any other group in our society." I reject that kind of thinking. It seems completely inappropriate for us to think that educators should accept "*any* other group" as a pattern for our own behavior. Certainly we ought not to be as selfish as criminals or such antisocial groups. I myself have real difficulty presuming that whatever improves my own personal lot in life automatically makes things better for other people, too. It may; then again, it may actually make things more difficult and less satisfying to other people who may be affected. When the teamsters strike or the auto workers strike, obviously their prime concern is their own welfare. The labor model seems too narrow and self-rewarding to be acceptable to me, as an educator.

---

[12] "Editorial." *Phi Delta Kappan* 49: 65; October 1967.

On the other hand, there are at least two problems involved with the legal model, too. In its rawest form, the legal model presumes that schools exist to serve the state. Schools are built by society, but, in my opinion, they must function to serve the needs of learners rather than the needs of the larger state. Our whole nation has been predicated upon the notion that the state should serve the individual rather than the idea that the individual should serve the state. Further, if we accept the legal basis of education as our primary determiner of what we should or should not do, then inevitably we have real difficulty utilizing feedback data about one operation which is inconsistent with the legal base.

If organizational patterns, curricular materials, evaluation procedures, and certification requirements, for example, are specified by statute or statutory agencies, then it becomes extremely difficult to modify practice according to research data or professional experience which might suggest otherwise. The system is too rigid to be responsive to new ideas as they arise. Education cannot evolve and change thoughtfully and according to the best data that are available at the moment if the authority base is the legal system of the state. Such a base forces the schools to serve the taxpayers and voters of the state rather than the learner's needs. And though many persons who function within the framework of the legal model say they are concerned about helping students, we all know that many (maybe most) decisions in education revolve around such questions as, "Can we afford it?" or "Will the pressure groups be satisfied?" rather than "Will it help young people learn?"

If the basic purpose of education is to save money for the taxpayers, then there are many things we could and should do differently: increase class size, reduce teachers' salaries, provide fewer materials. If the basic purpose of education is to help young people learn, however, then we have to function in entirely different ways. Most board members and school administrators, at least, have real difficulty distinguishing between the relative importance of economic and learning objectives. They want to say, "Both things are important. Both goals are worthy of pursuit."

There are many occasions, however, when we have to place our objectives in hierarchical form. One purpose is sorted out as primary and others are relegated to a secondary status. If we use the legal model as a basis for our endeavors, we generally make decisions that serve the adult population and the influential members of the community rather than the youngsters in our schools.

To protect ourselves and others from what we do, then, we devise an elaborate verbal game in which we say one thing but do another. Or, as a high school coach, an old friend of mine, once said, when I asked how the team was doing that year: "They hustle with their mouths." Many of us talk a good game, but our decisions reflect a set of value priorities which indicate that our concerns are with satisfying the legal model rather than with functioning in a truly professional way to help a specific group of clients achieve appropriate teaching or learning objectives which are worthy in their own right.

There are problems with each of the models I have described, but I believe we ought to consider seriously the possibility of moving toward truly professional status.

Studies of professional groups by sociologists [13] suggest that those groups which attain truly professional status are characterized by cooperation, equalitarian relationships, and mutually supportive activities. Neither the present labor-type conflicts between teachers and administrators nor the superordinate-subordinate relationships which the legal model requires seem conducive to better learning. Said another way, if we are to be truly professional then we have to be democratic. And whether we like it or not, that, I am convinced, is at the root of our present dilemma.

For at least half a century, since the appearance of Dewey's book on *Democracy and Education*,[14] we have attempted to devise democratic ways of working in our schools. Yet I believe that we have failed. For years teachers and students have sat patiently in their chairs, raising their hands, so to speak, and saying: "Hey! I'm here. Pay attention to me. Won't you listen to my ideas? Won't you let me have a part in what I do?"

And now we are offended by what they do. We are shocked by their behavior and tend to think, in our own paternalistic way, "But I *did* involve them. I *did* let them participate." My guess, however, is that we have employed meaningless participation rather than meaningful involvement. We have "gone through the motions," but we have not really given them a significant "say."

---

[13] Howard M. Vollmer and Donald L. Mills, editors. *Professionalization.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966. pp. 9-19.

[14] John Dewey. *Democracy and Education.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916.

Perhaps part of the problem is that we have been at least partially effective. As Eric Hoffer maintains,[15] people who are completely dominated and subjugated have no energies left or aspirations to be free. It is only when people begin to taste the heady wine of freedom that they seek more and more involvement and work to overthrow the established order to gain their way. So it may be that we have been moving in the right direction. I believe it is important, at any rate, to consider the professional model because it is truly democratic; it is also the most effective model we can employ in our efforts to be of optimum help to others.

Purpose in Supervisory Behavior

Stated simply, we have to *define what supervision is* and *define who supervisors are* if we hope to move toward a truly professional posture. Supervision is a process. Supervisors are a group.

As we outlined earlier,[16] we have to draw a circle around what supervision is and around who supervisors are. We have to define, inside the first circle, anything and everything which contributes directly to our objectives of helping teachers do a better job with the students in their classroom groups. Then we have to define, outside our professional sphere of activities, those behaviors and those ways of working which contribute only indirectly or which actually negate the attainment of the professional objectives. In other words, unless the supervisory activity makes a direct contribution to improved teacher effectiveness, then I believe it must be defined beyond the professional sphere.

Supervisors cannot do anything and everything. They dare not dissipate their energies in nonprofessional, that is, noneffective ways. They have to find a way to draw a circle around what they do so they can give both focus and power to their own energy output. They must learn to use themselves in such a way that *what they do makes a difference*. The essence of a truly professional operation resides in point number four described previously—making judgments. The truly professional person accepts his judgmental role and works to use himself creatively and effectively to help other persons.

Second, those groups which are most professional use the power of the professional organization to draw a ring around themselves so that everybody within their group functions inside the first circle which has been described. Those people who behave otherwise are either denied admission or ejected from the group. In this way competence becomes the ultimate criterion for admission and retention within the group, and the use of that competence to serve other persons (rather than oneself) is the primary motivation.

---

[15] Eric Hoffer. *The True Believer*. New York: Harper and Brothers (Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc.), 1951.

[16] Jack R. Frymier, *op. cit.*

Somehow, someway, we have to devise a means of circumscribing our effort and circumscribing our group so we can give real power to the concept of supervision in education. Adopting the professional model would be an exciting but complex and unsettling chore. In my judgment, the rewards are worth whatever effort might be required to accomplish this.

Contributors

George W. Denemark
Dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington

Jack R. Frymier
Professor of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus

J. Thomas Hastings
Professor of Educational Psychology, Director, Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation, University of Illinois, Urbana

Gordon J. Klopf
Dean of Faculties, Bank Street College of Education, New York, New York

William H. Lucio
Professor of Education, University of California, Los Angeles

C. Taylor Whittier
Director, Central Atlantic Regional Educational Laboratory, Alexandria, Virginia

William F. Young
Assistant Director for Information and Communication, Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory, Detroit

Members of the ASCD Commission on Problems of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers

Harold T. Shafer, *Chairman*
    Superintendent, Wyckoff Township Public Schools, Wyckoff, New Jersey

Robert J. Alfonso
    Assistant Dean for Instruction and Graduate Studies, College of Education, Kent State University, Ohio

Mrs. Marion C. Beckwith
    Assistant Director, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, Montgomery County Schools, Rockville, Maryland

Leo Black
    Assistant Commissioner, Colorado State Department of Education, Denver

Gerald R. Firth
    Chairman of the Department of Secondary Education, University of Alabama, University

John Fortenberry
    Assistant Superintendent for Instruction, Little Rock Public Schools, Little Rock, Arkansas

Ben M. Harris
    Associate Professor of Education, University of Texas, Austin

Barbara Hartsig
    Director, Elementary Education, California State College, Fullerton

Bernard Kinsella
    Assistant Superintendent, Pittsford Central Schools, New York

Gordon J. Klopf
  Dean of Faculties, Bank Street College of Education, New York, New York

John T. Lovell
  Dean, School of Education, University of Bridgeport, Bridgeport, Connecticut

William H. Lucio
  Professor of Education, University of California, Los Angeles

Kent Meyers
  Assistant Superintendent, Lake Oswego Public Schools, Lake Oswego, Oregon

John Prater
  Superintendent, Maywood Public Schools, Maywood, Illinois

J. T. Sandefur
  Chairman of the Division of Education, Division of Teacher Education, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia

William F. Young
  Assistant Director for Information and Communication, Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory, Detroit

Symposium Leaders

Staff Personnel

Harold Shafer, *Symposium Director*

Robert J. Alfonso
Marion C. Beckwith
Leslee J. Bishop
Leo Black
George W. Denemark
Gerald R. Firth
John Fortenberry
Jack R. Frymier
Ben M. Harris
Barbara Hartsig
J. Thomas Hastings
Bernard Kinsella
Gordon J. Klopf
John T. Lovell
William H. Lucio
Gordon N. Mackenzie
Kent Meyers
James Ogletree
Norman V. Overly
John Prater
J. T. Sandefur
J. Harlan Shores
Robert S. Thurman
Roy P. Wahle
C. Taylor Whittier
William F. Young

Resource Personnel for the Ten Clinic Groups

Robert J. Alfonso
Leslee J. Bishop
Donald L. Farrar
Gerald R. Firth
W. Harold Ford
Ben M. Harris
Dale Johnson
Gordon J. Klopf
William H. Lucio
Dorothy McCluskey
Ted Muellen
Richard F. Neville
John Prater
Barbara Riley
Dwane Russell
J. T. Sandefur
J. Harlan Shores
Robert S. Thurman
William Van Til

ASCD Publications

YEARBOOKS

Balance in the Curriculum	Raises questions and issues affecting balance in instruction	$4.00
Evaluation as Feedback and Guide	Advocates replacing grades, marks, tests and credits with a simpler and more basic evaluation which is illustrated	6.50
Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools	Relates mental health to the growth and development of children and youth in school	3.00
Guidance in the Curriculum	Treats that part of guidance which can and should be done by teachers	3.75
Individualizing Instruction	Seeks to identify and enhance human potential	4.00
Leadership for Improving Instruction	Illustrates leadership role of persons responsible for improving instruction	3.75
Learning and Mental Health in the School	Examines school's role in enhancing competence and self-actualization of pupils	5.00
Learning and the Teacher	Analyzes classroom practices, seeking to derive ideas and concepts about learning	3.75
Life Skills in School and Society		5.50
New Insights and the Curriculum	Examines new ideas in seven frontier areas	5.00
Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus for Education	Applies new psychological insights in education	4.50
Research for Curriculum Improvement	Helps teachers and others carry on successful research in school or classroom	4.00
Role of Supervisor and Curriculum Director		4.50
Youth Education: Problems, Perspectives, Promises		5.50

BOOKLETS

Assessing and Using Curriculum Content	$1.00
Better Than Rating	1.25
Changing Curriculum Content	1.00
Changing Curriculum: Mathematics, The	2.00
Changing Curriculum: Modern Foreign Languages, The	2.00
Changing Curriculum: Science, The	1.50
Children's Social Learning	1.75
Collective Negotiation in Curriculum and Instruction	1.00
Criteria for Theories of Instruction	2.00
Curriculum Change: Direction and Process	2.00
Curriculum Decisions ←→ Social Realities	2.75
Curriculum Materials 1968	2.00
Discipline for Today's Children and Youth	1.00
Early Childhood Education Today	2.00
Educating the Children of the Poor	2.00
Elementary School Mathematics: A Guide to Current Research	2.75
Elementary School Science: A Guide to Current Research	2.25
Elementary School We Need, The	1.25
Extending the School Year	1.25
Freeing Capacity To Learn	1.00
Guidelines for Elementary Social Studies	1.50
High School We Need, The	.50
Human Variability and Learning	1.50
Humanities and the Curriculum, The	2.00
Humanizing Education: The Person in the Process	$2.25
Humanizing the Secondary School	2.75
Improving Language Arts Instruction Through Research	2.75
Influences in Curriculum Change	2.25
Intellectual Development: Another Look	1.75
Junior High School We Need, The	1.00
Junior High School We Saw, The	1.50
Juvenile Delinquency	1.00
Language and Meaning	2.75
Learning More About Learning	1.00
Linguistics and the Classroom Teacher	2.75
New Curriculum Developments	1.75
New Dimensions in Learning	1.50
New Elementary School, The	2.50
Nurturing Individual Potential	1.50
Personalized Supervision	1.75
Strategy for Curriculum Change	1.25
Supervision in Action	1.25
Supervision: Perspectives and Propositions	2.00
Supervisor: Agent for Change in Teaching, The	3.25
Supervisor: New Demands, New Dimensions, The	2.50
Theories of Instruction	2.00
Toward Professional Maturity	1.50
What Are the Sources of the Curriculum?	1.50
What Does Research Say About Arithmetic?	1.00
Child Growth Chart	.25

Discounts on quantity orders of same title to single address: 2-9 copies, 10%; 10 or more copies, 20%. Orders for $2 or less must be accompanied by remittance. Postage and handling will be charged on all orders not accompanied by payment.

Subscription to EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP—$5.50 a year. ASCD Membership dues: Regular (subscription and yearbook)—$10.00 a year; Comprehensive (includes subscription and yearbook plus other publications issued during period of the membership)—$15.00 a year.

Order from:

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036